

# The Elementary School Journal

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, and published in conjunction  
with *The School Review* and *Supplementary Educational Monographs*

Volume XX

MARCH, 1920

Number 7

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

# THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

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*Civic-Moral Teaching in French Secular Schools—Part II.*

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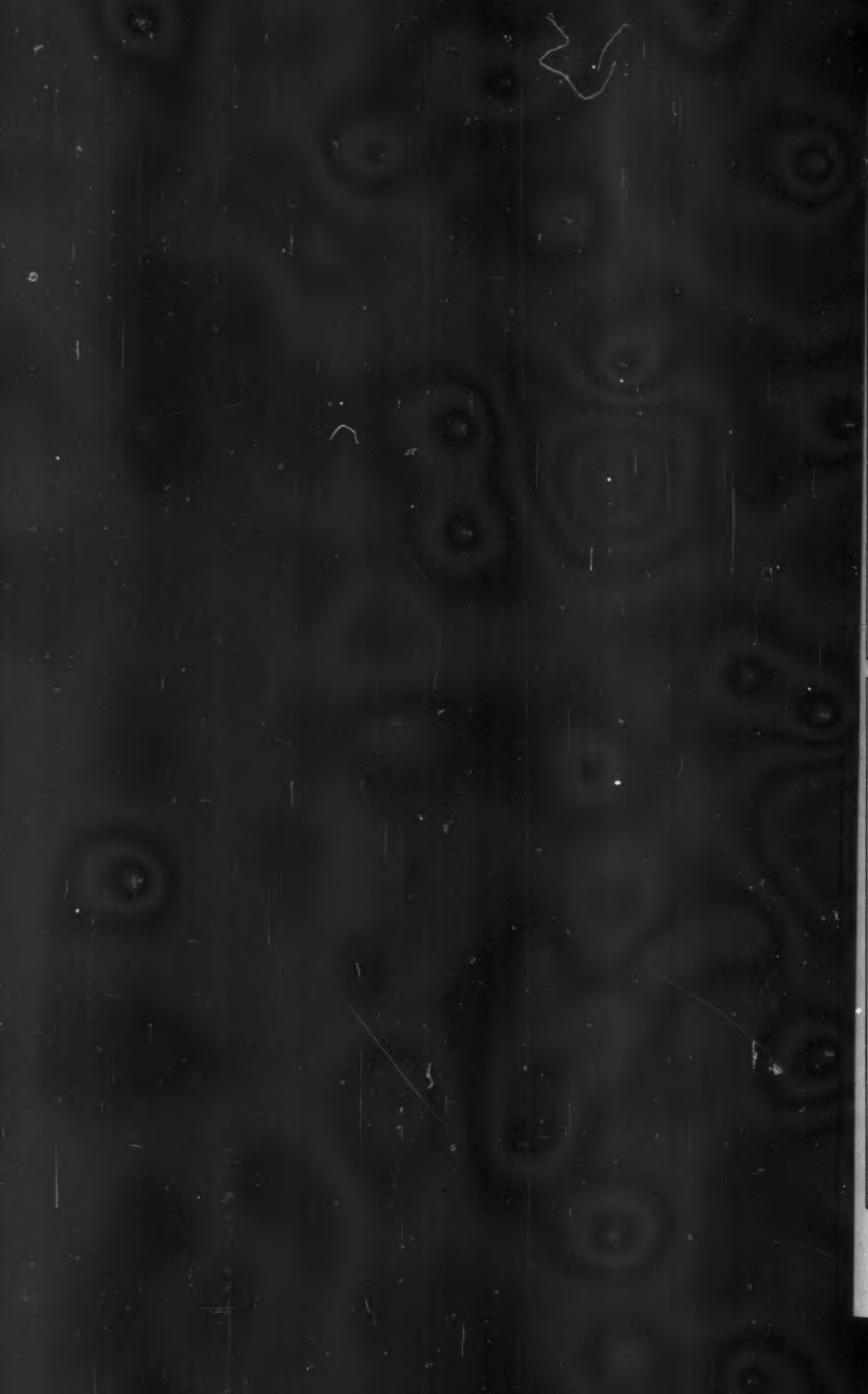
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Volume XX, No. 3, Nov., 1919

" XX, No. 5, Jan., 1920

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ORDWAY RUGG, Ph.D., and JOHN ROSCOE CLARK, A.B. Pp. vi+190. \$1.10, post-  
paid.

The purpose of the investigations reported in this monograph was to determine the effectiveness of the present organization of secondary mathematics. The report discusses the design and construction of mathematical tests essential to such a study, shows how the formal and reasoning abilities can be improved through the use of practice material, and suggests a reconstructed course of study on the basis of the investigations reported.

- No. 2. An Experimental Study in Left-Handedness, with Practical Suggestions for Schoolroom  
Tests. By ARTHUR L. BEELEY, A.M. Pp. viii+74. \$0.55, postpaid.

This investigation was undertaken for the purpose of determining the relation between left-handedness and certain types of handwriting. School administrators and teachers will find this a thoroughly scientific review of the whole problem and will get many valuable suggestions for the treatment of left-handedness.

- No. 3. The Handwriting Movement. A Study of the Motor Factors of Excellence in Penman-  
ship. By FRANK N. FREEMAN, Ph.D. With the assistance of H. W. Nutt, Mary L.  
Dougherty, C. F. Dunn, and P. V. West. Pp. xvi+170. \$1.35, postpaid.

Professor Freeman and a number of collaborators have photographed the movements made by children and adults during writing. These photographs have been analyzed to show the characteristics of mature and immature penmanship and the special characteristics of the different systems now commonly employed in schools. The monograph is the most extensive experimental study that has ever been made of penmanship.

- No. 4. Reading: Its Nature and Development. By CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD, Ph.D. With  
the co-operation of William Scott Gray, Katherine McLaughlin, Clarence Truman  
Gray, Clara Schmitt, and Adam Raymond Gilliland. Pp. xiv+192. \$1.10, postpaid.

This monograph reports the results of a series of experiments in reading with adults and with children in the grades and describes the treatment of a number of cases of defective readers. The stages of development through which children pass in reading are described in detail. A contrast is made between adult reading and the reading of children both in oral and in silent reading. This is the most complete experimental study of reading which has been published.

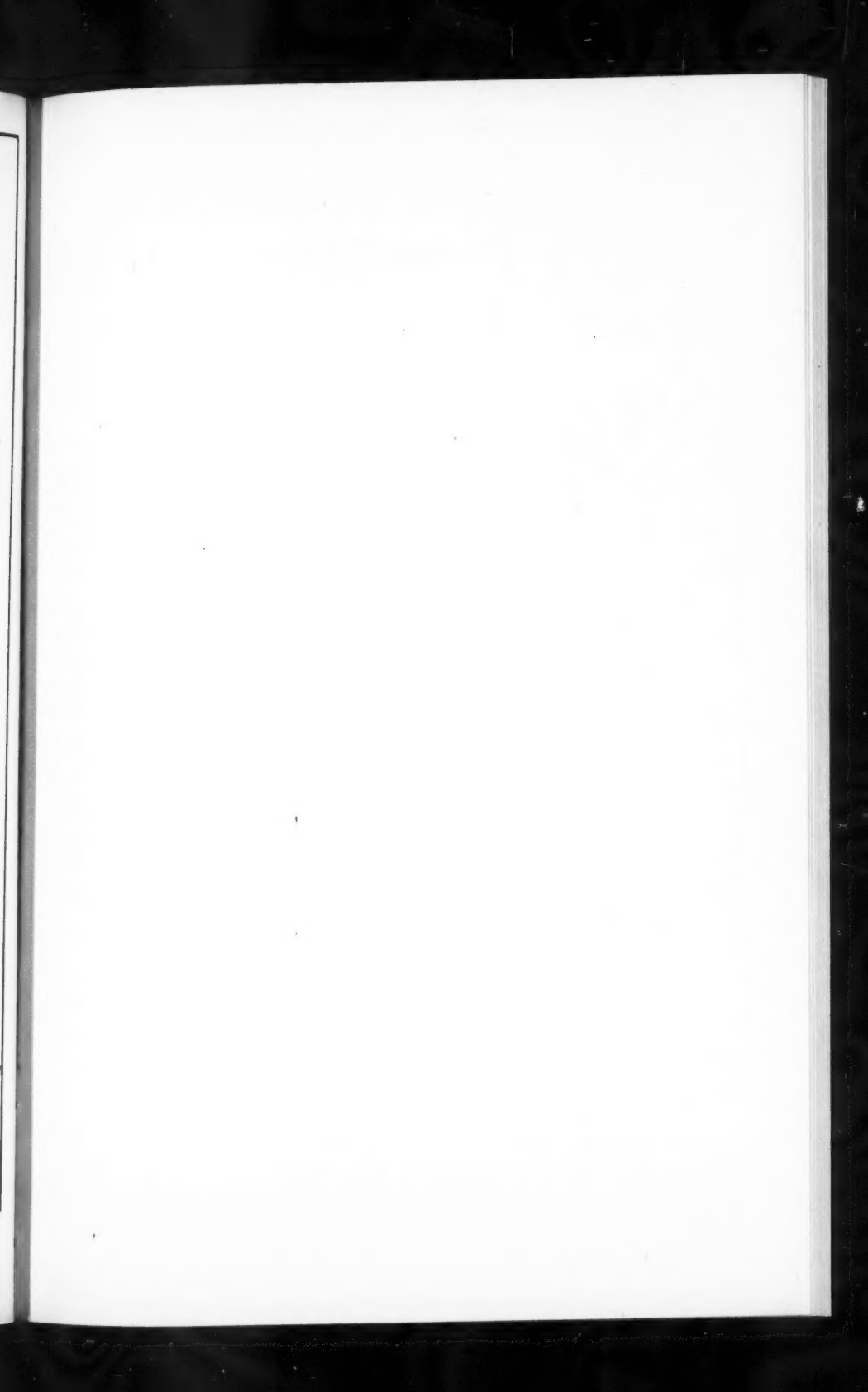
- No. 5. A Survey of Commercial Education in the Public High Schools of the United States.  
By LEVERETT S. LYON, A.M. Pp. x+62. \$0.65, postpaid.

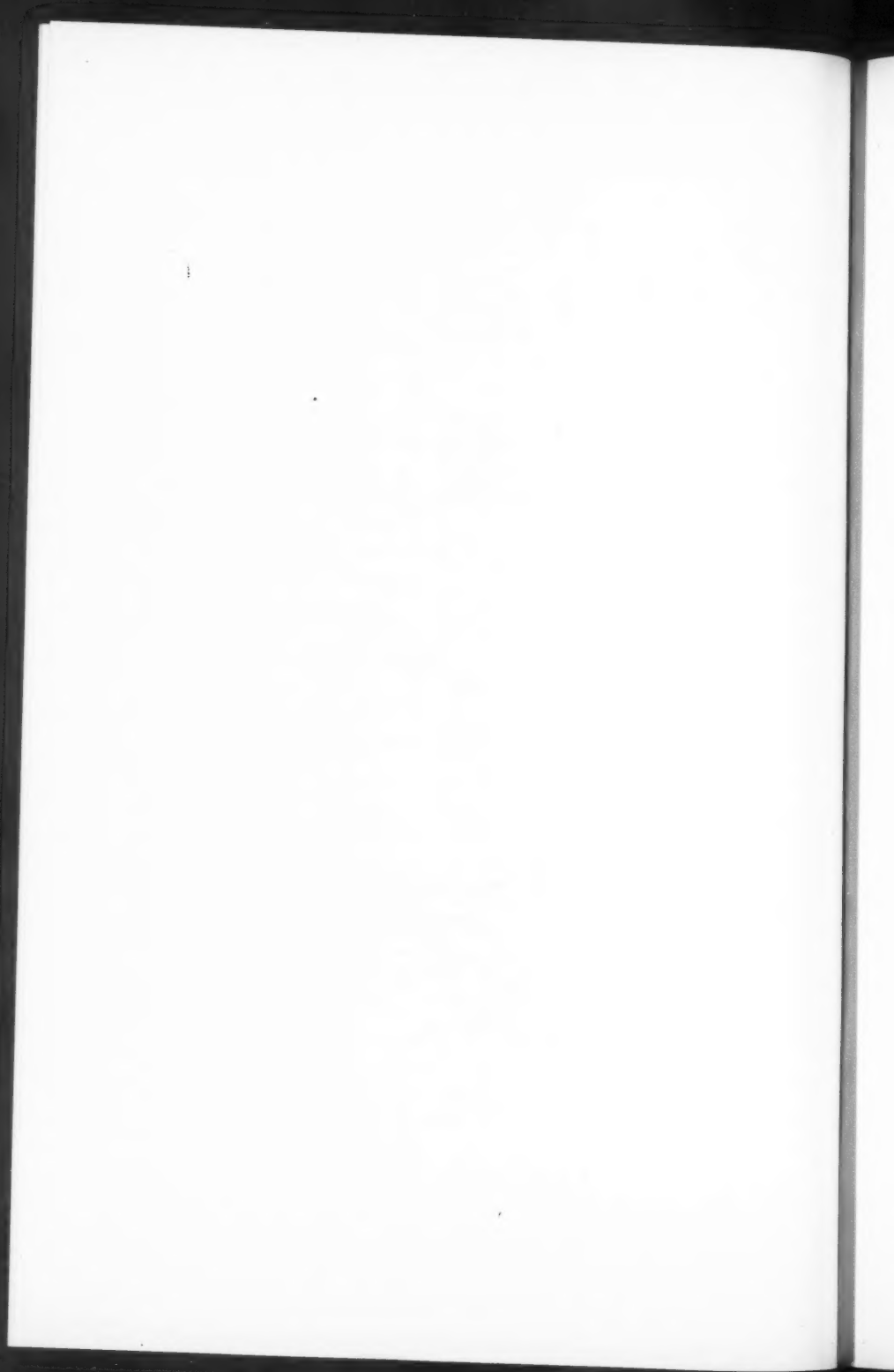
This monograph is an inventory and appraisal of the work now being done in commercial courses in high schools. Some of the important topics discussed are aims and policies of commercial education, organization and length of commercial courses, correlation with other subjects, courses for boys and courses for girls, types of teaching, and recent additions to the curriculum.

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# THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL

Continuing "The Elementary School Teacher"

VOLUME XX

MARCH, 1920

NUMBER 7

## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### THE TEACHERS' COUNCIL OF NEW BRITAIN

The movement to bring teachers into closer relations with the governing boards of school systems is one which should be encouraged in every way possible. The technical experience of teachers is invaluable to the administration, and the spirit of co-operation which is generated when teachers are taken into the councils of the superintendent and board is one of the most important aids to good administration.

In promoting this movement the *Elementary School Journal* has several times given details of organization as these have been worked out in various school systems. To the earlier examples

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The *Elementary School Journal* is published monthly from September to June by the University of Chicago. It is edited and managed by the Department of Education as one of a series of educational publications. The series, including also the *School Review* and the *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, is under a joint editorial committee and covers the whole field of educational interests.

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*Supplementary Educational Monographs*:

WILLIAM SCOTT GRAY  
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may now be added that of the Teachers' Council of New Britain, Connecticut. The action of the board creating the council is as follows:

WHEREAS, In the Report of the Superintendent of Schools made in September, 1919, a recommendation is made that action be taken by the School Committee to provide a definite and organized means of conference between the School Committee and the teaching staff; and

WHEREAS, A special committee of the School Committee appointed to consider this, with other recommendations contained in the Report of the Superintendent of Schools, has also recommended that such action be taken; be it therefore

*Resolved*, That a council of teachers be and hereby is established to be designated as the Teachers' Council of New Britain, and that this council shall be constituted and governed in accordance with the following by-laws, upon their approval and adoption by the School Committee; and be it further

*Resolved*, That these by-laws may be suspended or annulled by an affirmative vote of a majority of the School Committee whenever in the judgment of the School Committee the interests of the schools or school department make such suspension or annulment advisable or necessary.

The significant sections of the constitution and by-laws are as follows:

#### PURPOSE

The purposes of this organization are:

1. To secure a more active and effective participation of the teachers, in an advisory capacity, in the professional direction of the schools.
2. To furnish the teaching body a definite and organized means for conference with the School Committee or for the expression of its sentiments or judgments, with reference to questions of school policy.
3. To encourage professional improvement through the study and discussion of important problems of education and school management.
4. To develop the sense of solidarity of the teaching body, and an increasing appreciation of community of interest and responsibility among all teachers of all grades.
5. To afford the largest possible opportunity for initiative on the part of the teacher.

#### MEMBERSHIP

The membership of this council shall be as follows:

SECTION 1. Five representatives, including the principal and at least one head-master, from the teachers of the senior high school.

SEC. 2. Five representatives, including the principal of each school, from the teachers of the junior high schools.

SEC. 3. Nine representatives, including at least two principals, from the teachers of the elementary schools.

SEC. 4. One representative from all general supervisors and directors not provided for in the foregoing groups.

SEC. 5. The superintendent of schools and the supervisor of elementary grades, *ex officio*.

#### MEETINGS OF THE COUNCIL

SECTION 1. Regular meetings of the council shall be held on the last Tuesday of each month during the school year, beginning in September and closing in May. When such date occurs during a vacation period the president shall announce a substitute date for that meeting.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the executive committee, and a special meeting shall be called by the executive committee upon the written request of at least twelve members of the council, and within one week of the date of the request. Due notice of such meetings shall be sent to each member of the council.

SEC. 3. Fifteen members shall constitute a quorum.

#### BEST METHOD OF SUBTRACTING

The following contribution is sent to the editors by Principal John Dearness of the Provincial Normal School of London, Ontario:

In the *Elementary School Journal*, XX (November, 1919), 203-7, Superintendent Joseph S. Taylor, of New York, interestingly discussed "Subtraction by the Addition Process." Some years ago when teaching arithmetic to normal-school classes I made careful experiments with large classes of teachers-in-training to determine which of the three methods of subtracting, (a) the partitive or decomposition, (b) the "equal additions," (c) the Austrian, scores highest in combined accuracy and rapidity by the tests of actual results.

About 55 per cent of the subjects of the tests when hurried used the first method; over 40 per cent, the second; and nearly 4 per cent used the last-named one. The tests were repeated upon classes in different years. The results were always slightly in favor of the "equal addends" method.

In working out the reasons for these results I saw that in the "decomposition" method the subtracter is changing minuend numbers by counting backwards. Many of these are 'teen numbers. In the "equal addends" method he is as frequently counting forward from numbers always under ten. Let anyone write 100 digits in a line and note the time it takes him to think the 'teen of each digit and say the next lower 'teen and then the time to go over the same line saying as he proceeds the number next higher than the digit, and he will discover one reason why the "equal addends" method is less laborious. Another reason why it is easier is that in this method the fact of "carrying" has to be remembered only to the next digit observed while in the "decomposition" method the fact is carried past that digit to the minuend one.

So small a percentage of those experimented with employed the Austrian method that a convincing conclusion as to its rapidity and accuracy could not be reached. The students who use it when operating aloud seem to be mentally subtracting and expressing the operation in the language of addition. The process seems to add to the labor. As Superintendent Taylor pointed out when a store clerk, for the dollar bill given him, hands you a parcel with the remark that that is 68 cents, draws out 2 pennies and says 70 cents, a nickel and says 75 cents, and finishes with handing you a "quarter," he is not subtracting at all.

## JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN DES MOINES

The Board of Education of Des Moines, Iowa, has published a pamphlet in which it appeals to the people of that city to give it bonds for a five-year building program. The pamphlet is a model of clear and vigorous statement. The pages referring to junior high schools are reproduced below for two reasons. They exhibit the spirit of the whole pamphlet and they also summarize in a telling way the arguments for this type of school organization which is steadily spreading over the country.

## WHAT IS A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

The foregoing pages have shown very clearly that much additional school room must be provided immediately not only for thousands of children who are now attending school under conditions which impair their health but also for the increasing thousands to be accommodated during the next five years. It is equally clear that the *proposed program provides only the absolutely necessary minimum amount of space* required during this period.

How shall this space be distributed? How can our money be spent to provide room for the children and at the same time secure for them the best educational advantages? The junior high school offers the solution.

A junior high school includes the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. It thus relieves congestion both in elementary schools and in senior high schools. It changes the traditional eight-year elementary and four-year high-school organization (the 8 and 4 plan) to a six-year elementary, three-year junior high, and three-year senior high-school organization (the 6-3-3 plan).

	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL Grades		HIGH SCHOOL Grades
Traditional Organization . . . . .	Ktgn., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8		9, 10, 11, 12
	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL Grades	JUNIOR HIGH Grades	SENIOR HIGH Grades
Proposed Organization . . . . .	Ktgn., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	7, 8, 9	10, 11, 12

The 6-3-3 plan provides an elementary school in the immediate neighborhood of the child, a junior high school within walking distance, and a senior high school in the center of a larger section of the city. In other words, during the first seven years a pupil will attend school in a "neighborhood building" and during the next three years at the ages of 12, 13, and 14, he will go to a school which for a large percentage of the children will be within three-quarters of a mile from home and in no case farther than a mile. Finally, he will go farther across the city for the last three years of his school course.

The junior high school brings together in one school organization the seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade pupils from surrounding elementary schools in sufficient numbers to make possible many educational advantages which cannot be provided at the present time with these pupils divided into several small groups in



separate grade schools. To accomplish these purposes a junior high school should have an enrolment of at least 500 pupils, preferably 800 or 900.

In this connection it should be remembered that the only reason for having a few large high schools in our city is to provide educational opportunities which cannot be offered to small groups.

1. *Provides attractive special rooms.*—The junior high school provides for the seventh- and eighth- grade pupils many of the attractive privileges which with necessary economy can be given only in a rather large school organization. These are gymnasiums, libraries, auditoriums, laboratories, etc. Our high schools have these, our grade schools do not. The junior high school extends these privileges downward to thousands of children by the establishment of large enough organizations to make the provision of these privileges financially possible.

2. *A richer and varied program of studies.*—With from 500 to 900 pupils in the school there can be introduced in addition to regular studies to be taken by all (English, mathematics, spelling, history, civics, and physical training) many other subjects from which the pupils may choose in terms of their particular needs, interests, and aptitudes. These subjects are: commercial work, industrial courses, mechanical drawing, household arts, science, modern languages, etc.

3. *Helps pupil discover his abilities and opportunities.*—The varied program shown above continues to teach the *fundamentals* of good citizenship to all pupils but in addition it gives them a chance to test themselves out on and "explore" the world of work and opportunity so that they may more intelligently choose their future work and study.

4. *Provides for individual differences.*—Children of junior high-school age are at the beginning of the period of adolescence. They differ markedly in their interests, capacities, and needs. The old way was to make them all do the same thing at the same time and in the same way regardless of these differences. The new way is to recognize these natural differences and provide educational treatment accordingly. In other words, the junior high school fits the child. It makes possible:

- a) Promotion by subject rather than by grade.
- b) Organization of homogeneous groups—pupils with similar desires and abilities. This is not possible in small schools.
- c) More rapid promotion of certain groups and individuals.

5. *Eliminates dull monotony.*—Every year hundreds of pupils quit school in the seventh and eighth grades. They have been studying the elements of education for at least six years. They are entering the period of adolescence. They are restless; they want change; they long for something new. What do they find in the traditional grammar grades? Just more of the thing they have had for six years. More spelling, more reading, more geography, more arithmetic, more grammar. They have grown large enough for work and the world offers employment. The school offers nothing new. They must choose between directed academic monotony and the allurements of independent gainful occupation.

The facts tell the outcome of this story of wavering determination.

6. *Pupils stay in school longer.*—

- a) The junior high school is entered before the pupil has reached the age limit of compulsory attendance. Many pupils who in the eight-year

school would drop out after completing the eighth grade will remain to finish the ninth grade.

- b) The offerings and attractiveness of the school itself will keep many pupils in school who would drop out in the ordinary seventh or eighth grade. By staying in school these three years many pupils will "find themselves"; they will gain more stability and determination and will go on through the senior high school.

7. *Transition to senior high school easier.*—With the present type of small grammar school the pupil who finishes enters a strange land in the large, highly organized high school. He is bewildered by the mazes of its intricate machinery. He has been living a very different school life. The operations of his school have been comparatively simple. He is now forced into an abrupt and sometimes to his dismay a violent transition. The result is discouragement, failure, and withdrawal. *For years more pupils have dropped out during the first year of high school than during any other year in the twelve-year course.*

The junior high school interposes between the elementary school and the large senior high school an intermediary organization which partakes of both and gradually introduces the child to the methods of high-school management.

#### THE SCHOOL AND THE LIBRARY

The Public Library of Newark, New Jersey, has issued a statement for teachers setting forth the relation of the library to the school. Omitting section C, which has to do with the special equipment of the Newark Public Library, the full statement is as follows:

##### *A. Why teachers should know the resources of the library:*

1. The place assigned the public library by general consent is that of an integral part of our system of public and free education.
2. Schools and library, as two branches of one system, must work together. Each in its own field supplements the work of the other.
3. To accomplish this most economically and to the greatest advantage, each must know the activities and possibilities of the other.

##### *B. The field of each:*

1. The school, during a short period of the child's life, within well-defined courses, teaches how to read and, so far as time and course allow, what to read. For most pupils the results are at best meager. The reading habit and skill in reading are both acquired by much reading and usually only thus. Few children ever learn to read readily—with understanding.
2. The library must supplement the school reading by promoting extensive reading during school years when children are the greatest readers, and through life. This demands cordial relations and intelligent co-operation between schools and library authorities, between teachers and librarians.

##### *D. What teachers may do for the library:*

1. Know what there is in a library for teachers and pupils.
2. Keep the library informed of school work and give early notice of work to come, so that the library may be better prepared to give assistance.

3. Use great care in recommending books for children. There are many lists in the school department to help teachers in the selection of books for children.

4. Give children specific instructions about the subject or book desired when sending them to work at the library. Their wants can then be met more promptly and accurately. They go about the work more intelligently.

5. Teach the care of books belonging to the school as well as to the library. Teach children to use care in opening a new book, never to lay a book face down, or to turn a leaf corner, or mark or underline; to have clean hands. Teach the use of the printed parts of the book, the table of contents, index, etc., correlating it with subjects in the regular course of study. The library has books and pamphlets giving methods of presenting the matter to children.

#### A NOTICE AND A SUGGESTION

There is need of a new kind of educational exchange. When a school system invents a new device it ought to be possible for other systems to take advantage of the invention. At present the methods of exchanging experiences are slow and clumsy. Some national society ought to take up the problem. In the meantime we are glad to come to the rescue of one of our colleagues who suffers because there is at the present time no constituted general avenue of exchange. We are glad to publish in full his letter as follows:

In the January issue of the *Elementary School Journal* was an extended notice of an outline for parent-teacher associations which I prepared. So many teachers and principals have written for copies of this outline that my supply is almost exhausted. I am therefore writing this to ask you to publish a notice that if more outlines are requested, the people will please send 10 cents to cover the expense of having them printed and mailed.

O. B. STAPLES

GRAND JUNCTION, COLORADO

#### A CORRECTION

In a review of the Course of Study of the Duluth Public Schools published in the January number of the *Elementary School Journal* comment was made on an outline of the work in arithmetic presented for the 9B grade. The passage quoted and made the basis of adverse criticism is as follows: "One-third of the time allotment for arithmetic in this grade should be given to intensive drill work in rapid calculation." Superintendent Hoke calls attention to the inappropriateness of the criticism in the following statement which we are glad to publish as a correction to our review:

When I read the foregoing statement I felt confident that some person working on the course had made a mistake. On referring to the course in arithmetic

I find the next paragraph (page 101) under the 9B grade reads as follows: "This course is designed primarily for pupils taking the commercial courses, who, therefore, need to be able to solve accurately and quickly the problems arising in ordinary business transactions. The work is not to be considered in the nature of a review of the work of the grade. It should be taken up and carried on as an advanced subject."

It is clear, therefore, that this material is intended for commercial students. As a matter of fact the students for whom this work is planned are in the two-year high-school commercial course. The students who take the four-year commercial course receive their commercial arithmetic in the last two years of the high school. A very large majority of the ninth-grade students take algebra to which reference is made on page 107.

It seems to me that a criticism based on an isolated statement is manifestly unfair. The person who reads your review will undoubtedly conclude that all students in the ninth grade are required to give one-third of their time to drill on the fundamentals in arithmetic in order to make up deficiencies in the teaching in the lower grades. As a matter of fact this work is intended for a very small percentage for whom I believe it is a wise provision.

#### TEACHER TRAINING

The state of Indiana has a new law under which the Teacher Training Board of the State Board of Education is to outline courses of study to be adopted by institutions which are accredited as competent to give the state certificate. On February 5 a conference was called of representatives of the teacher-training institutions of the state for the purpose of discussing with the state director the course under consideration.

The following outline of a two-year course for elementary teachers was put into the hands of members of the conference for consideration as constituting a minimum curriculum:

FIRST YEAR		
FIRST TERM	SECOND TERM	THIRD TERM
Hours	Hours	Hours
Introduction to Teaching . . . . . 5	Psychology . . . . . 5	Principles of Teaching . . 3
English . . . . . 5	English . . . . . 5	School Organization and Management . . . . . 2
Biology . . . . . 5	Teachers' Geography . . 5	English . . . . . 5
		Teachers' Arithmetic . . . 5
SECOND YEAR		
FIRST TERM	SECOND TERM	THIRD TERM
Hours	Hours	Hours
Elements of Sociology . 5	Teaching of Elementary School Subjects. 5	Observation and Practice Teaching . . . . . 5
History—Modern Europe . . . . . 5	History—United States . . . . . 5	Home Economics, Industrial Arts or Agriculture . . . . . 5
Elective . . . . . 5	Elective . . . . . 5	Elective . . . . . 5

Unprepared work not to exceed 5 hours per term and to a total of at least 16 hours.

1. Music, drawing, penmanship, and physical education and hygiene should be required of all students.

2. Students should not be permitted to carry more than eighteen hours of work requiring preparation without the special consent of a faculty committee. In no case should students be permitted to complete the course in less than seventy-two weeks, unless by special vote of the faculty.

3. All teachers shall have pursued courses of approved grade at least five years beyond the high school, except that those teachers having distinguished themselves by writing or by unusual experience should be given special consideration.

4. Institutions on a four-hour-a-week basis should be recognized as equivalent to those on a five-hour program.

This program is evidently copied very closely from that laid down by Mr. Bagley in the pamphlet published by the Carnegie Foundation. It marks an impressive departure from current practice in its omission of the history of education. Its inclusion of biology and sociology also indicates a disposition to put education on a scientific basis so far as possible.

The discussion of this program was carried over by motion to another date because the papers which had been provided for the day consumed nearly all of the time of the meeting. It appeared in the course of the day that there was a good deal of uncertainty on at least two points. First, there was uncertainty as to the extent to which reviews of school subjects should be allowed. One member of the state board pointed out that in many teacher-training institutions the same textbook is in use for such a subject as arithmetic as is in use in the elementary schools and that the method of teaching is the same in the two grades of schools. For such elementary courses there is no justification. On the other hand, one of the speakers emphasized at great length the importance of skill in handwriting on the part of teachers.

The second point of uncertainty was reached in the discussion of the traditional subjects of the normal course. One speaker advocated an amount and kind of psychology about equivalent to that required of students who are candidates for the most advanced graduate degrees; another was satisfied with only that discussion of mental processes which is necessary to elucidate a course in general methods.

The hopeful aspect of this conference was not in its conclusions but in the exhibition which it gave of the fact that the day of the

old-fashioned complacent normal course is over. When the normal curriculum begins to undergo radical changes there is hope for better schools.

#### REGISTRATION BUREAU OF THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The California Teachers' Association has been a leader in many matters of organization. For some years past it has had under consideration a step which has finally been taken, as is indicated in the following statements quoted from its February News Letter.

A Teachers' Registration Bureau has been established under the immediate charge of Mr. C. M. Rogers. It is the purpose to keep lists of available teachers with their qualifications and professional records; to be informed of vacancies in teaching and administrative positions; to assist employing officials to find desirable candidates; to assist teachers in finding and investigating positions; and to keep track of training agencies and their surplus product.

The bureau will be conducted without profit, no commissions being charged teachers for securing positions.

To teachers in the elementary schools there will be a charge of \$3, and for teachers in high schools, principals, and other supervising officers, a \$5 charge will be made, this to cover the clerical work incident to collecting data, preparing copies, carrying on correspondence, perfecting records, etc.

Both teachers and school officers are invited to correspond with the Registration Bureau of the California Teachers' Association. Registration blanks will be sent on application. All correspondence and work in the bureau will be handled by Mr. Rogers. For the present, address Mr. Rogers at 703 Neilson St., Berkeley, California.

It is certainly a forward step in American school organization when the business of finding places for teachers is taken over by a responsible public organization. The commercial teachers' agencies are not to be condemned because the school systems of the country have to depend largely on them for the placement of teachers. To be sure, there are many unfortunate consequences of the lack of public supervision of this matter of placement. On the other hand, the public would suffer if the commercial agencies did not fill the gap. The effort has been made in some states to develop teachers' agencies under the control of the state departments. The Department of Labor and the Bureau of Education attempted to establish federal agencies. All these experiments show the tendency toward a responsible public management of what is now in private hands.

The California Teachers' Association has recognized the importance of rendering a service to the school system and at the

same time of strengthening its hold on its members by rendering for them and for the schools with which they are connected a service which is so obviously a co-operative service that the California example will doubtless be imitated by other state teachers' associations.

#### RED CROSS HEALTH CAMPAIGNS

The Red Cross has turned its organization to domestic problems. The following bulletin indicates the reasons which it finds for its work:

In Maine there is a county that is facing gradual annihilation. In this county, where 18,000 persons make their homes, the death rate is higher than the birth rate. In some towns, the number of deaths is more than double the number of births.

After a few generations, at this rate of shrinkage, the residents will be as extinct as the dinosaur and the dodo. To be exact, the census figures of this county can suffer the inroads of the grim reaper for 143 years, but by that time even the census taker will have expired. Generations may be born, live, have progeny, and die, but in the year 2062, the last man of the last family of the last of the county's nineteen towns, will be no more.

This startling condition is all the more amazing when one learns that these people are nearly all native born Americans and are remarkably intelligent, progressive, and fairly prosperous. Most of the inhabitants engage in that most healthful of occupations—agriculture. Lumbering and fishing also flourish. There are no manufacturing plants or factories.

In the schools, little attention is paid to health matters, although the teachers are progressive in other ways. The children come long distances and bring their lunch. No attempt is made at serving a hot lunch or even hot drink, although many of these little folks leave home early in the morning and remain all day. The seats are the old-fashioned double type, and when the Red Cross made a recent survey of the county, adjustable seats were found only in one school. Running water was found only in rare instances and no provision was made for washing hands. The toilets in the rural schools are old-fashioned, unsanitary affairs, and in some places dirty and worse.

Very few children use a toothbrush and dental care is sadly neglected. The majority of the little people live so far from a dentist that it appears the dentist will have to be brought to school. The boards of health in the towns are not active and little or no money is appropriated for health work. It is next to impossible to obtain the services of a graduate nurse, as there are only two or three in the county. There are a few domestic nurses but adequate nursing service is difficult to obtain.

Plenty of work for the Red Cross public health nurse! And yet this county is not exceptional. Its people, for the most part, are intelligent and wide-a-woke. But health has been neglected, with results that startle the observer unaccustomed to link health and community welfare as cause and effect.

When approached on the subject of a Public Health nursing service, the citizens, for the most part, were willing and anxious to assist. Red Cross Public Health nurses in these towns will nurse the sick, inaugurate medical inspection of school children, organize tooth brush drills and crusades for clean living, guard the welfare of expectant mothers and entrench the town against the inroads of all preventable disease. The advent of the nurse will do more than any other one factor to reverse the ghastly figures and make this county's birth rate exceed the death rate.

#### WHO SHALL RECEIVE INCREASES IN SALARY?

The problem of equitably adjusting increases in teachers' salaries is one which has aroused much discussion in the last few months. Superintendent Greeson of Grand Rapids recently presented in the public press of that city a discussion of certain aspects of the matter which is very much worth quoting. His treatment of the problem is based on the principle that salaries should be related to merit, and he attempts to discover ways of applying the merit principle justly.

The first two years then may be grouped as years of probation—class 1, \$1,200; class 2, \$1,250. Those who succeed in passing this important period of probation with success should be promoted to class 3. Let us group the next four years under the heading of good teachers of proved merit, of good education and professional training, and who above all have teaching power, which has been proved by experience either in Grand Rapids or in some other school system. We then would have in this group class 3, \$1,300; class 4, \$1,400; class 5, \$1,500; class 6, \$1,600.

It is perfectly possible for a good teacher of good education and with teaching power to cease to grow. Whenever such a point is reached, the salary should cease to grow also. In other words, promotion from class to class in this group should be on merit.

I have always felt that the schools are suffering because good teachers can earn a decent salary only when taken out of a teaching position and placed in an executive position as superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, assistant principal, supervisor, assistant supervisor, etc. Many good teachers will not make good executive officers and ought to be left in a position where the actual teaching is done, namely, in the classroom. But heretofore we have paid only starvation wages for such positions and a good teacher cannot afford to stay in the place where she can do the most good. Therefore, I would form another group of teachers.

I should advertise the fact that teachers of unusual merit who stand out above the common level of good teachers would be promoted to another group. I should be very careful about such promotions. I should say that a teacher should not be promoted to this third group unless she has unusual power as a teacher and has been successful. This means also that such a teacher has kept pace with educational progress and knows what is doing in the educational world. You



know and I know that in every school system there are teachers, comparatively few, that stand out above the other teachers, but about whose success no one has any question, and everybody knows that those teachers are the best. Those are the ones that I would place in the third group. Then we would have class 7, \$1,700; class 8, \$1,800; class 9, \$1,900; class 10, \$2,000. So far I have been talking about teachers in the grades, just teachers, with no additional duties whatever. I am proposing the possibility of a teacher going on until a salary of \$2,000 is reached. This is not an extravagant compensation for a first-class regular teacher in the grades.

Let us consider now a schedule of salaries for teachers in the high schools. I do not know why a teacher in a high school should have a better salary than a teacher in the grades, providing that the grade teacher has the same ability, the same preparation, both in time and in quality, and the same professional training, and providing also that he has the same teaching ability. In Grand Rapids we require one year of experience before the applicant is eligible to an appointment for a position in the high school. We also have a rule that a teacher in the grades who has a college degree may receive two years' credit as for experience if she has taught for one year successfully. This would indicate that the minimum salary for a high-school schedule, when one year of successful experience is required before appointment, should be \$1,400. This rule assures that the probationary period has been passed before the teacher has been appointed to a position in the Grand Rapids high schools. Therefore, in the high-school schedule we should have a group of teachers, who may be called good teachers, first-class teachers, with good preparation, good ability, good teaching power, and proved success. This group would include class 1, \$1,400; class 2, \$1,500; class 3, \$1,600; class 4, \$1,700; class 5, \$1,800, and, as in the grades, these teachers should be promoted from class to class on merit.

However, there should be provision made in a high-school schedule so that a good teacher who is worth more in the classroom than in any other position could stay in the classroom where he is doing good work. There is no doubt that in the final analysis the real work of the schools is done in the classroom and nowhere else. Superintendents, principals, supervisors can do nothing more than to make conditions favorable for teachers to do their best work.

It is therefore a distinct loss to the school system whenever a schedule of teachers' salaries is so arranged that a teacher must quit the place for which he is eminently fitted and aspire to some other kind of work to which he may not be fitted, in order to receive a decent salary. I would make it possible, therefore, for high-school teachers of unusual merit as shown by the results of their teaching positions to look forward to a prospect of receiving a reasonably large compensation for the superior work they have done and can do and will do, I would, therefore, add to the above another group of teachers of unusual merit, with exceptional mastery of their specialties, and who want to stay in a teaching position. To such teachers should be given salaries ranging from \$1,900 to \$2,500 a year according to individual merit.

I know of no one item in the whole discussion of salary schedules that would have a more beneficial effect upon the teaching force now and in years to come than the formation of these groups in the grades and in the high schools for

teachers of unusual merit with the prospect and the assurance that if they stay in teaching positions they will reach a salary which is a reasonable, though moderate, compensation for persons of ability and success as teachers.

Of course, salaries of principals, supervisors, heads of departments, and special teachers would have to be arranged in accordance with the schedule mentioned above. One could not reasonably expect a principal to work for less than a teacher in the same building, nor could one expect a head of a department to be satisfied with less salary than that received by teachers in the department. I do think, however, that there has been too great a difference in salaries of executive officers and the salaries of regular teachers.

Much severe criticism has come to me, both from teachers and from members of boards of education, assuming that injustice has been done to teachers who are now receiving what is called the "middle salaries" of the schedule. Where the whole salary schedule is so low, and where injustice has been done not only now, but always in the past to all teachers, it is difficult to locate the greatest injustice, but certainly the greatest injustice has not been done to the teachers who are now getting under \$1,000. A brief examination of the facts will prove this assertion.

A teacher without experience who was appointed in 1913-14 received \$400 that year. Her salary for 1919-20 is \$900—a total increase of 125 per cent in six years—an average yearly increase of 21 per cent. An inexperienced teacher appointed in 1914-15 received \$500 that year. Her salary for 1919-20 is \$900—a total increase of 80 per cent in five years—an average yearly increase of 16 per cent. A teacher without experience in 1915-16 received \$500 that year. Her salary for 1919-20 is \$850—a total increase of 70 per cent in four years—an average yearly increase of  $17\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. An inexperienced teacher in 1916-17 received \$500 that year. Her salary for 1919-20 is \$850—a total increase of 70 per cent in three years—an average yearly income of 23.3 per cent. An inexperienced teacher appointed in 1917-18 received \$600 that year. Her salary for 1919-20 is \$850—a total increase of 41.7 per cent in two years—an average yearly increase of 20.9 per cent. A teacher without experience appointed in 1918-19 received \$650. Her salary in 1919-20 is \$800—a total increase of 23 per cent in one year.

These six classes have received a yearly increase of not less than 16 per cent and up to 23.3 per cent. Surely a teacher who could live on \$400 a year in 1913-14 can live on \$900 in 1919-20. The cost of living has not increased 125 per cent since 1913-14. I am not trying to show that this teacher under discussion receives an adequate salary. I am going to show that in comparison with what she received in 1913-14, she has the advantage of a teacher who has been in the schools of Grand Rapids for the last 15 years.

A teacher now receiving the maximum salary of \$1,200, six years ago received \$800—an increase of 50 per cent in six years—a yearly increase of  $8\frac{1}{3}$  per cent, as compared with the yearly increase of 21 per cent that a teacher received who has been in the school system only six years.

## THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

The Department of Superintendence held the largest meeting in its history during the last week of February at Cleveland, Ohio. It was notable for the numerous accessory meetings which were held in connection with the central department. Some sixty associations were in session, beginning with the normal-school presidents who convened on Friday and Saturday of the week before the general meetings.

Among the topics which received most frequent attention were the Smith-Towner Bill, salaries for teachers and superintendents, participation in school control by teachers, Americanization, and health education. The general meeting and the other meetings at which the Smith-Towner Bill was discussed endorsed the bill as expressing the views of educators. The *Elementary School Journal* will give much space in the April number to this discussion and to the details of action taken. Americanization and training in civics were frequently discussed in meetings and in committees. Some of the results will appear in a civics number of the *School Review* in April. Various programs of health education were proposed, showing a widespread interest in this matter. It was universally agreed that teachers should be given larger share in school control. The shortage of teachers was reported on every hand, and the necessity of increasing salaries was repeatedly brought out.

At the business session it was voted that a new and safer method of electing officers must be adopted. A temporary plan was accepted for next year, and a committee was appointed to work out a final plan. Commissioner Kendall was elected president for the ensuing year. This was an impressive victory for sound organization. Commissioner Kendall is a leading figure in American education and his election clears the air of all the dissatisfaction which has existed in the department.

The next meeting was voted for Washington, though it was pointed out that it will be difficult to carry out the vote on account of inauguration.

## News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

### COURSES FOR SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS

In the organization of courses for the coming Summer Quarter special consideration has been given to the needs of superintendents and principals. The courses which have been provided are definite and specific in character and relate to the most significant problems which confront administrators and supervisors. They will be given by regular members of the Department of Education assisted by a corps of prominent educators from different parts of the country. The courses which follow are typical of the much longer list which will be given to meet the needs of superintendents and principals:

The School Population by John E. Stout, professor of Educational Administration, Northwestern University.

The Teaching Staff by Superintendent John W. Withers, St. Louis, Missouri.

Financial Organization and Administration by Dr. Carter Alexander, first assistant state superintendent of Public Instruction for Wisconsin.

Public-School Finance (an advanced course) by Professor Henry C. Morrison, superintendent of the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago.

Administrative and Supervisory Functions (an advanced course) by Professor Franklin Bobbitt.

The Junior High School by C. O. Davis, professor of Education, University of Michigan, and L. V. Koos, professor of Secondary Education, University of Minnesota.

The Administration and Supervision of High Schools by Professor C. O. Davis and Professor L. V. Koos.

The Administration and Supervision of Elementary Schools by W. P. Burris, professor of Education and Dean of the College for Teachers, University of Cincinnati.

The Curriculum by Professor Franklin Bobbitt.

The Psychology of Elementary Education, the Psychology of Secondary Education, and Advanced Educational Psychology by Professor Charles H. Judd.

School Treatment of Retarded and Mentally Defective Children by Dr. Clara Schmitt, Child Study Department, Chicago Public Schools.

Introductory Laboratory Course in Experimental Education by Dr. F. N. Freeman and Guy T. Buswell, assistant professor of Education, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota.

Statistical Methods Applied to Educational Problems by Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, director of the Division of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, New York City, and K. J. Holzinger, instructor in Education, University of Chicago.

Mental Tests by Associate Professor F. N. Freeman.

The Use of Tests in Improving Instruction by S. A. Courtis, director of Educational Research, Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan, and Associate Professor William S. Gray.

Principles and Technique of Test and Scale Construction by S. A. Courtis.

Investigations in Reading by Associate Professor William S. Gray.

Methods of Teaching in High Schools (an advanced course) by Professor S. Chester Parker.

General Technique of Instruction in High Schools by Professor Henry C. Morrison, superintendent of the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago.

The Criticism and Improvement of Teaching in Elementary Schools by Associate Professor William S. Gray.

Methods of Historical Research by Dr. M. W. Jernegan.

Foreign School Systems by Professor Nathaniel Butler.

General Principles of Fine and Industrial Art by Professor Walter A. Sargent.

Industrial Education by Emery Filbey.

Industrial Organization and Management by H. T. Fultz.

Vocational Guidance by Emery Filbey.

The foregoing list of courses is by no means a complete one. Those who are interested in courses for superintendents and principals during the coming summer are advised to write for an Announcement of the Summer Quarter of the University of Chicago.

## THE KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY UNIT—PART I

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ALICE TEMPLE

School of Education, University of Chicago

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The problem of unifying the work of the kindergarten and primary grades is one that is engaging the serious attention of many teachers and supervisors. It was thought, therefore, that a description of the way in which one institution has attempted to solve the problem might have some practical value at this time.

The following pages will give an account of what the School of Education has done, both in its college department and its elementary school, to bring the work of the kindergarten into organic relationship with that of the rest of the school.

### THE COLLEGE DEPARTMENT

*Training of teachers.*—During the first years of its existence the College of Education of the University of Chicago, like other teacher-training schools, offered in its undergraduate department one general curriculum for the training of elementary-school teachers and one special curriculum for the training of kindergartners.

There are two chief reasons for the existence of this practice in normal schools. In the first place, the kindergarten was maintained in this country as a private and philanthropic institution for many years before it became a part of the public-school system. Teachers for these early kindergartens were trained in private kindergarten training schools established for the purpose, and for a number of years these same private normal schools were able also to supply the gradually increasing demand for kindergarten teachers in public schools. Hence when the public normal schools finally found it necessary to train kindergartners they, naturally enough, simply added a special curriculum similar to those prevailing in the private training schools and employed one or more kindergartners to teach most of the subjects.

In the second place, the controlling principles, methods, and materials of the early kindergarten were so different from those of the early primary school that a special type of teacher-training seemed to be absolutely essential.

The last twenty years have witnessed many changes in both kindergarten and primary-school practice. The progressive kindergarten no longer adheres to the traditional "gifts and occupations" and to prescribed methods of using these materials; nor does it proceed upon the theory that universal truths may be conveyed to little children by means of symbols. Accordingly, it provides materials and activities by means of which children may gain control of their bodies, express and organize their ideas, expand and interpret experience, and establish desirable attitudes and habits. Meantime the up-to-date primary school, realizing the limitations of the 3 R's curriculum, has enriched its program by adding such activities as singing, drawing, constructive occupations, story-telling, and games, and has endeavored to organize its work in terms of the children rather than the subject-matter.

With these changes in classroom practice there has been in recent years a growing tendency in a number of leading institutions to reshape their normal-school curricula, organizing one for the training of teachers for kindergarten and primary grades, and the other for the training of teachers for grades beyond the third. The School of Education made this change about seven years ago.

*A two-year curriculum for freshmen.*—The organizers of the new kindergarten-primary curriculum proceeded on the conviction that the period in the child's life from four to eight years is relatively homogeneous, and that teaching in any one of these years can be effective only when the teacher is familiar with the characteristics and needs of the period as a whole and the methods by which the school has successfully ministered to these needs throughout the four years.

The required subjects included in the curriculum are listed below. Each of the eighteen subjects represents a unit of work covering forty-eight class periods.

I. General

1. Introduction to the Scientific Study of Education.
2. Principles of Teaching in Elementary Schools.
3. Child and School Hygiene.
4. English Composition.

## II. Departmental Subjects

5. Introduction to Kindergarten-Primary Education.
6. Industrial Arts: Plays and Games.
7. Reading, Language, and Literature.
8. Introduction to Community Life, History, and Civics.
9. Drawing and Painting.
10. Music.
11. Natural Science.
12. Geography } or { The Kindergarten-First Grade Curriculum
13. Mathematics } or { Practice-Teaching.
14. Practice-Teaching.
15. Practice-Teaching.

## III. Electives

16. } Selected according to individual interest or need and subject to
17. } the approval of the departmental adviser.
18. }

I. The first four courses or majors listed are required of all students who are preparing to teach in any part of the elementary school. Course No. 1 is taken during the first quarter of residence and serves to acquaint the students with the fundamental problems of education. Observation in the elementary school, with reports, is a required part of this course.

The second course listed above is another general course which is taken the first year, the purpose of which is to familiarize the students with the general methods of class management and of teaching in the elementary school. The students observe with the instructor the exemplification of teaching principles in each of the grades, including the kindergarten. Observation is always followed by analysis of the lessons seen. These two courses, together with Hygiene and English Composition, are the only required courses not organized with special reference to the needs of kindergarten-primary teachers.

II. Of the departmental courses the first one mentioned, Introduction to Kindergarten-Primary Education, is taken parallel with Introduction to Education. It places emphasis upon the study of the child during the period 4 to 8 years and the character of his education during this period. Supervised observation in the kindergarten and primary grades is an important part of this course. Each of the special methods courses in the above list, numbered 6 to 13 inclusive, deals with some one subject, or group of related subjects, of the lower-grade curriculum. Each course is



organized so as to include discussion of both the subject-matter and methods of teaching the particular subject in the kindergarten and first three grades of the University Elementary School, and also observation of the teaching of the subject in the practice school.

Students may not register for practice-teaching until they have completed the two general courses in education and some of the special methods courses. By this time they have had so much observation in connection with college classes that they are ready to begin teaching as soon as they have prepared satisfactory lesson plans. They are assigned for practice-teaching in the kindergarten and primary grades.

Students who are more interested in working with children of second and third grade take geography and mathematics, while those who are interested in the earlier years register for a third major of practice-teaching and the course entitled Kindergarten-First-Grade Curriculum.

The latter is a summarizing course the purpose of which is to train students in the organization of curricula for these grades adapted to particular situations. It is taken by students who have had the general courses in education, several departmental courses, and some practice-teaching.

III. The three electives are allowed in order that students may strengthen any phases of preparation in which they find themselves deficient.

In considering such a curriculum as that outlined above one may naturally ask whether or not important subjects formerly included in the kindergarten or the elementary curriculum have been omitted and whether the time given to other subjects has been materially reduced. It may be noted, for example, that there is no course devoted to the study of Froebel's writings, especially the *Education of Man* and the *Mother Play*, a course which has been very commonly made the basic course in kindergarten training schools. Such study has been omitted from the curriculum because it is believed that all that is sound and valuable in theory and method in these books is to be found in much clearer and more readable form in modern books on education. Furthermore, the study of Froebel's particular contribution to education can be understood only in the light of the history of education, a subject which can well give place in a two-year course to others of more direct and practical value for the prospective classroom teacher.

Again the curriculum outlined provides no course in the traditional instrumentalities of the kindergarten—the “gifts and occupations.” Instead, a course in industrial arts for lower-grade and kindergarten children is provided. This is a special methods course which includes enough actual work with the materials suitable for little children for the students to gain the necessary technique. It includes only those of the Froebelian materials which have proved valuable. No time is given to a study of materials and processes which may not be used in the classroom. This is an example of a course in which the time formerly given has been materially reduced, but without loss. The time thus saved is devoted to a more thorough study of methods of teaching reading and other subjects of the curriculum of the progressive primary school.

On the other hand, time formerly given in the curriculum for elementary-school teachers to a study of upper-grade subject-matter and method is now given to subjects more important to the primary teachers such as Plays and Games, Introduction to Kindergarten-Primary Education, etc.

This new curriculum has been administered long enough to satisfy those who are responsible for it that the teachers who are now going into the lower grades and kindergarten after completing the series of courses outlined above are, other things equal, doing far more efficient work than those who completed either of the curricula formerly offered. They are intelligent concerning the needs and capacities of children during these early years and realize the importance of securing continuity of experience for the children in the organization of school activities. Those who teach in the kindergarten find themselves able to anticipate and prepare for the work of the first grade without sacrificing any of the values of the kindergarten. Similarly the first-grade teachers know how to take advantage of the results of kindergarten training.

*Four-year curriculum for freshmen.*—In the meantime, all students are urged to prepare more fully for classroom teaching by completing a four-year curriculum leading to the bachelor's degree. The proportion who take this longer curriculum is steadily increasing with the demand for higher scholarship on the part of the elementary-school teacher and corresponding increase in salary.

*Advanced curriculum for supervisors.*—The curriculum for teachers who have had normal-school training and teaching experience and who wish to prepare for supervisory work is organized on the same principle as that for the classroom teachers. It includes courses which prepare students for supervision of both kindergarten and primary grades. If it is desirable to unite the kindergarten and primary grades in the training of the teacher, it is even more important to prepare supervisors for efficient work in both fields.

#### THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

*Conditions favorable to co-ordination.*—The classes in the University Elementary School are relatively small. No teacher in the lower grades is responsible for more than thirty-five children. There are special teachers of music, drawing, industrial arts, and physical education so that for most of the work the groups are half this size, eighteen or less in number. Some of the classrooms have their smaller group rooms and there is a playground or gymnasium for all physical work, a special music room, and the workshop. It is never necessary, therefore, to conduct two classes in the same room.

The rooms have movable furniture and adequate equipment and supplies. The equipment of the first grade is very similar to that of the kindergarten so that the children who are promoted from kindergarten to first grade find themselves at home there. The activities also are familiar. The children draw, model, construct, play games, listen to stories, have informal conversation, sing songs, etc. Even for the systematic teaching of reading they find themselves prepared, as is shown on page 508. Furthermore, they are not unacquainted with the room teacher as she has joined them with her class in the gymnasium during many of their game periods the previous year. The teacher of music, too, has often visited and sung with them in the kindergarten so that they are acquainted with her. The daily time schedule of the grades is necessarily somewhat less elastic than in the kindergarten because of the special teachers of music, arts, etc., but the general atmosphere is free, informal, and homelike as in the kindergarten.

All of the five teachers in the grades below the fourth have had full kindergarten training, including practice-teaching in the kindergarten as well as training for teaching in the primary grades. Likewise, the two kindergarten teachers have had primary training.

The teachers in the lower grades do not teach exactly the same grade every year because the size of the classes varies. Sometimes there is a large second-grade group; another year it may be the first or third that is unusually large. This means that the 1B and 1A teachers may be called upon to teach regularly any subject in second or third grade in the afternoon session, which the first-grade classes do not attend. Or a teacher who has taught 2A and 3B classes during any one year may the next year teach 2B and 2A classes, etc. One of the teachers has gone on with the same class for three successive years. All the teachers make it a practice to visit one another's rooms. Experience of this kind has the distinct advantage of keeping the teachers in direct contact with the teaching problems of the grades below and above their own and necessarily makes for greater continuity in subject-matter and method and in all phases of school life. The special teachers work in close harmony with the room teachers, thus securing the degree and kind of correlation desirable.

There is nothing unreasonable in a demand for conditions as good or better than these in our public-school systems. They do exist in some places and they should become increasingly common.

*The course of study.*—Probably the most effective means of bringing the kindergarten and primary grades into vital relationship is in the organization of the curriculum as a unit. In fact, the psychology of the child of this period demands such procedure. There are certain native tendencies and characteristics which are common to the entire period of which the school must take account.

1. Children of this age are highly imitative and seek constantly to interpret social experience in various forms of imitative and dramatic play.
2. They crave sensation and delight therefore in manipulating objects and materials and in experimenting with tools. As they acquire a little control and skill they construct crude objects which fit into their play schemes or projects. The planning and making of the objects involves problem-solving of a rudimentary sort.
3. Children are extremely social during these years as manifested in their pleasure in companionship, their tendency to do as those about them do, and their eagerness to talk.
4. Finally, they demand much physical activity of a sort that gives exercise to the larger muscles and keeps the vital organs in good condition.

The kindergarten-first-grade curriculum should be organized with these fundamental needs and desires of the children as the

primary consideration. It should attempt to further the children's spontaneous efforts to satisfy their needs by applying material, opportunity, incentive and necessary guidance adapted to the broadening experience and growing control of the children in these several directions. A brief description of two important types of activity as carried on through the kindergarten and first grade will serve to illustrate how continuity of experience has been secured during these first years of school life. These will be described under the headings Dramatic and Manual Activities and Language Activities. Other phases of the program such as Plays and Games, Music and Drawing are organized on the same principles.

*Dramatic and manual activities.*—"Community-life" is the term used to include the themes about which many of the play interests center. Children of this age seek to enter into some of the forms of social life of which they are a part by reproducing certain interesting phases of this life in imitative and constructive play. We see city children playing house, store, train, driver, etc. They use dolls and other toys in such play when they have them but they are very ready to adapt material at hand to their purposes. They use chairs to make a train; the space behind the sofa in the corner serves as a house; a fruit crate makes a most satisfactory lemonade stand.

*Group projects.*—The kindergartner makes use of these strong dramatic and constructive interests from the beginning. When the children come to school for the first time in the fall they find an attractive room which contains, among other things, many suggestive toys and play materials such as dolls, doll beds, chairs, and dressers; toy housekeeping utensils; toy trains and wagons; large building blocks; clay and plasticine; paper, scissors and paste; drawing paper and crayons; a sand table; etc. The children are encouraged to play freely with these things for the first few days, selecting their own materials and toys. After they have had time to become acquainted with different materials and have discovered some of the possibilities, the teacher may take up some one or more forms of play which have been initiated by the children, and by tactful suggestions lead to definite organization of the activities in the form of objective group projects. For example, early this fall some of the children became interested in playing on the floor with the large building blocks. They experimented with the blocks for a day or two and finally one child made a chair. This suggested

other furniture to her and the others and soon all were making chairs, tables, beds, and stoves. These were large enough for the children to use themselves.

Soon they began to encroach on one another's territory; so the teacher drew lines on the floor to mark off one child's space from that of his neighbors. This suggested rooms to the children. As the spaces were in a row the teacher suggested that they represent different rooms in the same house. This led to discussion of the necessary rooms and the proper furniture for each, which was straightway made. The chalk marks on the floor separating the rooms did not satisfy one boy; so he secured some long board-like blocks and used these. Next came the demand from one of the children for doorways between the rooms. This child then selected shorter blocks for the partitions which he combined so as to leave spaces for doorways.

The "dramatic" play stimulated by the kitchen and dining-room in this playhouse suggested the need for cooking utensils. The teacher then supplied plasticine and all of the children experimented with it, turning out in the course of time some boiling kettles, tea kettles, a rolling-pin, cups, and plates. Suddenly one boy said to a little girl, "I'll make you some peas to boil in your pot," and proceeded to roll numberless little spheres of plasticine. The teacher took this opportunity to ask where one might get other things which were needed in cooking. This suggested the idea of building a grocery store to the children and two of the boys proceeded to construct one. The others discussed the result and in the light of their criticism the structure was finally improved so as to serve the purposes of a grocery store more satisfactorily. The miniature store was stocked with a few fruits and vegetables of clay. It was soon discovered that it was going to be too small to hold all the things that a grocer has for sale, whereupon it was decided to use all the blocks and make one big store.

While these children were carrying on the project described, the play of another group was organized by means of a screen playhouse which the teacher supplied. These children used the blocks to make furniture for this one house and the play led finally to interest in the grocery as the immediate source of food. Both groups then united in the building, equipping, and stocking of the large store.

The development of this project required two or three trips to a grocery to get ideas of interior arrangement, of the stock carried, the window display, and the process of buying and selling. It supplied motive and incentive for a variety of manual activities from which problems suited to the ability of different children could be readily selected. Boxes and bags of different sizes and shapes were needed to hold the products; means of representing cans and bottles had to be devised; fruits and vegetables were modeled and colored accurately enough to be easily recognized; cards for price marks had to be measured and cut; market baskets and delivery wagons were made, and also pocketbooks and toy money for the buyers.

As the structure and equipment assumed proportions sufficient to admit of it, the children began to play at buying and selling. The mother would come from home (the screen playhouse), pocketbook in hand, and buy of the clerk, paying for her purchase at the cashier's desk. Sometimes the orders came by telephone. After such play as this the children were delighted to learn and sing the following little dialogue song:

Mother: "Hello, hello, please send a sack of flour."

Grocer: "All right, all right, 'twill be there in an hour."

Mother: "Goodbye."

Grocer: "Goodbye."

Other projects which have been initiated and developed in similar fashion and with equally satisfactory results are the making of a paper doll outfit by each child, and in connection with this the building and equipping of a dry-goods store by the group as a whole; the planning and carrying through of a Christmas festival, including the purchase and decoration of a tree and the making of room decorations, gifts, and invitations; a group of community buildings including homes of various kinds, a school, a church, stores, the fire department, etc. Such a project as the latter would develop gradually, beginning perhaps with the building of individual houses or homes. This would lead very naturally to the arrangement of these on a street and would at once suggest sidewalks and street lights. The needs of this toy community become apparent one after another, and as they are taken up the children are given full opportunity to express their interest and extend their knowledge and experience concerning each by means of excursions, pictures, descriptions,

and various forms of graphic, constructive, and dramatic activity. Planting and caring for a garden and raising chickens are projects which afford much valuable nature experience.

Through play activities of the kind described the children are constantly acquiring new ideas and meanings and developing power to use these ideas in carrying forward their own play purposes. With this growth in the control of ideas there is necessarily a parallel advance in the development of oral language as the "vehicle of ideas." The acquisition of a relatively large number of ideas and of words corresponding to these ideas is preliminary to the process of learning to read intelligently. The child who is to learn to associate printed and written words with their meanings must have previously associated the corresponding oral words or sounds with meaning. The beginner can go from printed symbol to meaning only by way of the oral symbol—hence the importance of providing in the kindergarten rich experience of the kind described. If the child enters first grade without such experience, the school must take time to supply it before reading can be effectively taught.

In the first grade similar projects are undertaken but among them are projects requiring more manual skill which are related to forms of community life which are somewhat less familiar. Children who have come up through the kindergarten are interested to recall their play and work of the year before in connection with the home and grocery store and their more recent experiences of the summer in the country and on the farm. These are readily related to the food products found in the school garden, and interest is easily carried back to the farm and the characteristics of family and community life there. A miniature farm is set up on the sand table or on the floor. The children devise ways and means of representing the characteristic buildings, the gardens, fields, fences, etc. They bring toy animals, or make them of clay or plasticine. These complete the picture and suggest dramatic play, which often leads to a rearrangement of the objects in the sand table in order to present a truer picture.

A project growing out of all this is a farm book. This involves such activities as constructing the book, designing a cover, collecting pictures, making illustrative drawings and cuttings, writing or pasting in explanatory words and sentences, and composing relevant descriptions and stories for the book.



*Free play and work period.*—While the type of work described allows for much initiative and purposeful activity, the primary grade teachers have felt that some provision should be made, as in the kindergarten, for quite free choice of activity, material, problem, etc. Therefore the program provides a period several times a week during which the children are free to use any materials or toys available. These include paper for construction, drawing or writing, clay and plasticine, scraps of soft wood with hammers, saws, and nails, sewing and weaving materials, dolls, and picture and story books.

The children get the materials they need and put them away promptly at the end of the period. They work alone or in small groups. The teacher is there to give help and suggestion when needed, to encourage the timid children, and to see that time is not wasted. Time is given to examination and discussion of the work which has been undertaken by different individuals or groups and the children hear and accept many suggestions from one another.

The teacher values this period as one during which she gains deeper insight into the interest and abilities of the children and is able, therefore, to provide more intelligently for their individual differences. She values it as a further and most effective means of developing initiative and independent thought and action. And finally, she values the social control which is gained through this form and degree of freedom. It is another example of the way children of six and seven years of age are provided with a type of school experience which has proved valuable for children of five years.

[To be concluded]

## PLATOON SCHOOLS IN PRACTICE

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One of the direct results of the Gary school experiment has been a general awakening to the economic value of space utilization. The demand for a "seat for every pupil" under the ordinary form of school organization really means more than is implied. It not only involves a seat for every child in the regular classroom, but it also requires a seat in the auditorium. Space for these same children must in addition be furnished in the special rooms, such as shops and kitchens, and in the gymnasium and on the playground as well. This is obviously a tremendous waste of room provided it remains unutilized save on those occasions when it is utilized by a single class. The popular cry then means not a seat for every child but two or even three or four seats for a child.

In these days of ever-mounting cost of education the responsibility rests squarely upon every school superintendent to conserve space in the interest of the taxpayers so far as is compatible with efficiency.

Doubtless the administrative problem is much simplified by assigning a room to a class and leaving the space unoccupied when the group is sent to the special rooms, but these are times when other considerations than simplicity of administration must be the controlling factors. What then is the solution of the problem?

The extreme Gary form of organization with special teachers for each subject brought certain inevitable disadvantages. No teacher can meet a succession of classes and give each child the individual attention requisite for the best results. Instruction under these conditions is strictly a mass procedure. The individual is lost sight of. Questions of adaptation of work to individual needs, responsibility for securing the co-operation of parents, become everyone's business with the usual result, and one of the most valuable elements in a well-ordered school is largely eliminated. Again, both pupils and teachers work best in an atmosphere of quiet and repose. The constant passage of groups of children to

and from classrooms tends to develop a condition the very antithesis of this desirable result. Other disadvantages equally valid might be mentioned.

Our problem then resolves itself into the question of utilizing the space-saving element of the Gary plan and at the same time retaining the desirable features, so far as possible, of the traditional type of school organization. This object seems to be realized in two of the schools in Montclair, New Jersey, by the Platoon or modified Gary scheme. Under this plan an auditorium, gymnasium, playground, shops, and kitchens must be assumed as no space can be saved in a building which contains only classrooms.

The schools in question are elementary, extending through grade six only. No attempt is made to include grades one and two since it is believed that children of these ages are best served by one teacher in the classroom method. Eight groups make up the rest of the school, two third grades, two fourth grades, two fifth grades, and two sixth grades. For these eight classes the work is divided into two general groups: (a) special subjects, consisting of physical training, industrial arts, geography, music, and literature; (b) the remaining subjects of the curriculum. The regular teacher gives instruction in the general subjects for both the A and B groups of her grade. Each group enrolls theoretically thirty-five pupils. This makes the classroom teacher responsible for seventy pupils.

At the opening of school the four A groups of the respective grades report to the classroom while the four B groups report to the four special teachers. The teachers of the A groups now go through their regular program during the first session of the school undisturbed by any passage of pupils or visits from special teachers. The only transfer of pupils is in the special rooms where the four B groups go from one room to the next until the circuit is completed.

With the opening of the second session of the school a similar procedure is followed but the B groups are now with the regular teacher while the A groups are passing from one special teacher to another. The details of this plan are best understood by a study of the program for Grades 6A and 6B given on the following page.

Such a plan as this involves devoting the same time to special subjects as is given to the so-called regular subjects. This brings no complications since the New Jersey law requires that thirty minutes a day be given to physical training. Industrial arts, as

taught in these schools, means more than manual training. Industrial information would be a more descriptive term. The teacher of this subject is required to keep in touch with the pupils' work in the regular classes and so shape her instruction that it has a direct connection with the lessons in the regular classroom. If the classroom teacher is discussing the Plymouth Colony then the industrial arts teacher might be constructing a colonial house of logs and equipping it in colonial style. Cotton in the classroom might

Time	Grade	Special Subject	Minutes	Grade	Regular Subject	Minutes
9:10-9:40.	6A	Physical Training	30	6B	Arithmetic . . . . .	45
9:40-10:10.	6A	Geography . . . . .	30	6B	Spelling . . . . .	15
10:10-10:40.	6A	Industrial Arts..	30	6B	Penmanship, Language . . . . .	30
10:40-10:55.	Recess					
10:55-11:25.	6B	Physical Training	30	6A	Arithmetic . . . . .	30
11:25-11:55.	6B	Industrial Arts..	30	6A	Penmanship, Spelling . . . . .	30
11:55-1:00..	Noon Intermission					
1:00-1:30...	6B	Geography . . . . .	30	6A	Language . . . . .	30
1:30-2:15...	6B	Music and Litera- ture . . . . .	45	6A	Reading, History, Civics . . . . .	45
2:15-3:00...	6A	Music and Litera- ture . . . . .	45	6B	Reading, History, Civics . . . . .	45

mean in the industrial arts room a cotton plantation, cotton gin, loom, weaving of cloth, or any bit of construction work that would help the child to a better understanding of his history or geography lesson. The theory back of this subject is that if it is to be a water-tight compartment with no relation to academic information then the arts period is largely wasted. Its value is measured in terms of the extent to which it is correlated with the other departments. A cotton project, while the geography of Alaska was being taught, would invite the sharpest criticism.

That the ideal of correlation is being realized appears from the following abstracts from teachers' reports made at the end of each month to the superintendent.

## INDUSTRIAL ARTS CORRELATION REPORTS

Dyeing costumes for a sixth-grade play to correlate with literature. Development from primitive to aniline dyes. Coal tar products to correlate with geography or mining. Tools of Stone Age to compare with tools of steel in connection with steel manufacture taught in geography.

Robin Hood costumes made for pupils taking part in the play developed in literature class.

Textiles—making special study of wool taught in geography. Processes of wool manufacture, shearing, sorting, scouring, dyeing, blending, carding, spinning, weaving. Looms made, cloth woven. Same method applied to linen.

In the study of Japan the language work consisted of sentences based upon facts of that country. Sand tables showing conditions of Japanese living were prepared in geography. Industrial arts utilized the opportunity to build a Japanese home, furnished it in the manner of the country, and dressed dolls to represent the people. Japanese art was studied in connection with drawing. Back of every lesson was the conscious purpose to present every possible phase of the subject so related as to furnish the child with a connected whole.

The general plan in the industrial arts is to develop in each grade each year some phase of the six following units:

1. Food
2. Shelter
3. Clothing
4. Tools and machines
5. Utensils
6. Problems in social and industrial life.

In reports of duplicate schools frequent reference is made to the necessity for additional equipment. The Montclair method of grouping obviates all difficulties of this character. The fact that texts are furnished makes it entirely feasible, in almost all cases, to use a single set of books for both groups. The majority of textbooks are intended for the use of pupils of two or three successive grades and the limits of the ground covered by an A and B group are much less than this. Experience shows that the plan is workable when a fifth and sixth grade are thus paired. The space in the ordinary cloakroom by a little planning will serve for both classes.

Little special furniture is required. A set of wooden lockers, constructed by the local carpenter, serves to care for work in the process of completion in the industrial arts room. For this special subject square tables accommodating four pupils are provided. The ordinary bent wood chair is used for seats. This plan dispenses with the regular classroom desk and is less costly. It is an advantage to furnish the music and literature rooms with movable chairs. This permits the room to be cleared for the dramatization of stories in connection with language study. The geography room may be furnished with any type of seat, but plenty of sand tables are necessary if the teaching is to be done on a project basis. Grouping geography with the special subjects allows the collection of a wealth of geographic material such as maps, globes, charts, pictures, etc., without the duplications unavoidable when it is taught in each classroom.

By this semi-departmentalization the teacher is relieved of the need of making a daily preparation in a large number of widely varying subjects. The majority of teachers are well prepared in the core subjects of the curriculum but it is the exceptional teacher who can do equally well in the newer subjects such as music, hand-work, and drawing. A reference to the program shows that the classroom teacher must prepare in only five or six subjects daily, and approximately the same preparation will serve both groups of children. More important still is the fact that this preparation is required for those subjects with which the teacher is most familiar, and that she is freed from the necessity of attending group meetings called by supervisors of special subjects.

Teachers employed for the special subjects are experts in their chosen field and this means a higher degree of efficiency than can be asked of the regular teachers. At the same time the problem of supervision is greatly simplified as the supervisor needs to visit but a single teacher in a building, and an expert at that. Her chief duty is to see to it that the different buildings are working toward a common goal.

No additional teachers are required under this plan. The eight classes indicated would require eight teachers under the traditional method of organization. With the platoon plan four class teachers and four special teachers are employed.

In practice there is a 25 per cent gain in building space. For the eight groups six regular classrooms are used, geography and industrial arts being assigned to regular rooms while physical training and music and literature use the gymnasium and auditorium.

#### SUMMARY

1. The Montclair plan means approximately a 25 per cent saving in building space.
2. The special subjects taught by experts give the same degree of efficiency as the regular classroom subjects.
3. Industrial arts is taught with the sole purpose of enriching and illumining the academic subjects.
4. Little or no additional equipment is necessary.
5. This plan reduces confusion in the building and places upon the classroom teacher the responsibility for the general welfare of the individual child.
6. Teachers are freed from the necessity of preparing lessons in a multiplicity of subjects and from attendance upon numerous teacher meetings.

## THE NEW EDUCATION DEPARTMENT IN MASSACHUSETTS

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For many years increase in the number of state boards and commissions in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has been a growing problem and not infrequently a political issue of more or less importance. On the one hand was a tradition and a sentiment, not to say prejudice, against "one-man power" in any form, and on the other was the inexorable march of social and political evolution building up governmental machinery which was becoming every year more and more unwieldy, more and more ridiculous.

The constitution of 1918, Art. LXVI, attempts to bring the administrative and executive organization of the government up to date. The article follows.

### ARTICLE LXVI

On or before January first, nineteen hundred twenty-one, the executive and administrative work of the commonwealth shall be organized in not more than twenty departments, in one of which every executive and administrative office, board and commission, except those officers serving directly under the governor or the council, shall be placed. Such departments shall be under such supervision and regulation as the general court may from time to time prescribe by law.

*Act of 1919.*—In pursuance of the article just quoted, the general court of 1919 enacted a statute carrying into effect the intention of the new constitution. The new act was approved July 23, 1919, and was to become effective in part November 15, 1919; in part not before December 1, 1919; in part on January 1, 1921. So far as the present discussion is concerned, the act took effect December 1, 1919.

The act is far too lengthy to be quoted in full here. A descriptive summary covering the department of education is presented.

From 1837 to 1919, the department of education was the State Board of Education, unless we admit a qualification in the act of 1909 in which the board came to have a legally recognized executive in the place of its time-honored secretary. The department comes



now to be the activities which are enumerated in the act. It is placed under the supervision and control of a commissioner and a board of six to be known as an advisory board. Both commissioner and board are to be appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the executive council. Among the activities thus brought into the department are: Massachusetts Agricultural College; the Massachusetts Nautical School; the Fall River, Lowell, and New Bedford Textile Schools; the Teachers' Retirement Board; the Free Public Library Commissioners; the Commission for the Blind; the Bureau of Immigration.

The department is thus made to approximate the typical Middle West state education office. If the general court had taken one further step and had made the commissionership an elective office, the approximation would have been complete. The question then arises, "Which way is the path of progress?" If the legislation of the last ten years or so in New York, New Jersey, Vermont, New Hampshire, Montana, California, Delaware, and Massachusetts' earlier legislation is right, then the new Massachusetts act is wrong. If Massachusetts, after ten years under board and commissioner, with commissioner appointed by the board, has justly concluded that her present program is right, then the other movement referred to is evidently on the wrong track.

The commissioner is charged with the supervision of the department including its organization, and with the "administration and enforcement of all laws, rules and regulations which it is the duty of the department to administer and enforce." His power here, and consequently his responsibility, is definite. He is apparently subject to no control either by the governor and council or by the advisory board. He must stand or fall on the consequences of his own acts.

The act, however, explicitly removes nine divisions, counting the three textile schools as three divisions, from the direct control of the commissioner and lodges control in either the old boards or similar new boards. That is, the boards are charged with the direct management of institutions and functions subject to the "supervision and control" of the commissioner and advisory board of education. The director and advisory board of the new division of education of aliens are to be appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the council, and this procedure as to

appointment and powers is typical of all the divisions which remain under the old subordinate boards. Thus we apparently have another instance of the old "supervision and control" of the state superintendents of public instruction with actual control lodged elsewhere, a form of reluctance, through fear or jealousy of one-man power, to locate responsibility, which for three-quarters of a century has made those officers little more than educational sentries, except as here and there an individual has been able to wield powerful personal influence.

In the remainder of the sixteen divisions which, we understand, have been established, the power of appointment and removal is lodged in the commissioner with the approval of the advisory board of education. The commissioner is thus made responsible for efficiency up to the point where he "passes the buck" to the advisory board.

The act fails to have particular educational significance to the extent to which it is a part of a general program of state administration. Nevertheless, since Massachusetts seems to have come to the conclusion that public education is not essentially different from other political functions, the act has, we think, profound significance to the student of educational administration.

One's first thought is that the new act puts the state education office definitely in the hands of the party politicians. Whenever there is a change in the party in power, the commissioner and advisory board will be replaced by the faithful. That may well happen, but it is interesting to note that Maine and New Hampshire, both New England states with much the same political genius as Massachusetts, had the same method of selecting the chief education officer which is now set up for Massachusetts for practically the whole history of their education offices. During the lifetime of the present generation, there have been three instances in which the party in power has been changed without change in the personnel of the educational departments. The same statement could be made of other appointive state administrative officers, whose functions are essentially expert in their nature.

The Massachusetts act may well cause us to pause in our politico-educational theories. For many years past, we have felt that progress in administration, first in the cities and then in the states, has been in the direction of constituting boards of education calcu-

lated to secure the services of educational experts as executives. The intimate history of the device would fill many volumes, and many chapters would make discouraging reading. So far as the state education office is concerned, the Middle West is the region which has resisted the change.

Natural law apparently reigns in the political world as in the economic and physical worlds. We contrive, and we enact statutes, and their outcome is often very different from what we had planned. In the beginning, we set up a device for securing an expert for President of the United States and it never worked. It ought to have, but it wouldn't. We provide a board and tell it to select an expert and let the expert run the schools. In many, if not most, cases the superintendent conducts the schools if he is personally strong enough; otherwise a strong man on the board or outside the board does it.

The new Massachusetts act is promising in so far as it removes the commissionership from the shelter of a board of education and compels the commissioner to assume direct, visible, personal responsibility for his own acts. So far as it permits, not to say compels, the responsibility of the commissioner to blend into the neutral background of ten different boards, it will generate neither efficiency nor confidence.

On the whole, the governors of Massachusetts will be about as likely to select expert commissioners directly as to select boards which will select experts. In either case, in the long run the people of Massachusetts will get a state education office pretty much in accordance with their deserts, and everybody knows their deserts are great. Progress will depend upon the intelligence of the public in matters educational. That is a long road to travel, but apparently it is the only way.

We are unable to state in this issue how many colleges and high schools in Massachusetts are giving required courses in the meaning and processes of popular education. We therefore refrain from expressing any opinion as to the likelihood that the incoming generation will be intelligent in matters educational.

## CIVIC-MORAL TEACHING IN FRENCH SECULAR SCHOOLS—PART I

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### INTRODUCTION

*Similar demands for civic-moral teaching both in France and America.*—Since 1882 France has had a national system of civic-moral instruction in its secular schools with a national course of study and a great variety of textbooks from which teachers might choose. In the United States the national emergency resulting from America's entrance into the great war created a large demand for the organization of similar instruction in American schools and resulted in the active writing of textbooks for such purposes.<sup>1</sup>

*French civic-moral material explained by national political and religious struggles.*—It was the original purpose of these articles merely to describe the French textbooks for civic-moral teaching in order that we in America might secure suggestions from them. It quickly became apparent, however, that the evaluation of such material is impossible without a thorough understanding of the social needs for which it was created. Consequently, the account of the textbooks themselves has been preceded by a description of the political, religious, and educational developments in France which created the need for the books and for the specific topics treated in them. The discussion will be taken up under the following headings:

I. Struggle for life of the Third Republic (1870—) against Monarchists and Clericals.

II. Parallel battle of republican secular schools (1881—).

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<sup>1</sup> *Reviews of American civic-moral textbooks.*—The following articles and reviews will put the reader in touch with the general progress in America in the publication of civic-moral textbooks. Many of the most recent books are reviewed.

CHARLES H. JUDD, "The Teaching of Civics," *School Review*, XXVI (September, 1918), 511-32. Historical review of textbooks since 1867.

R. M. TRYON, "Current Literature on Civics and other Social Studies," *School Review*, XXV (April, 1917), 293-99.

HOWARD C. HILL, "Recent Literature on Civics and other Social Studies," *School Review*, XXVI (November, 1918), 705-14.

III. Program of 1882 for civic-moral teaching.

IV. Textbooks for civic-moral teaching.

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I. STRUGGLE FOR LIFE OF THE THIRD REPUBLIC (1870—)  
AGAINST MONARCHISTS AND CLERICALS

*Sudden deaths of First and Second Republics explain civic-moral safety measures for the Third.*—To appreciate the purpose and content of the civic-moral teaching instituted in the French elementary schools in 1882, it is essential to comprehend it as one of the chief weapons used by the great republican statesmen of France to safeguard the existence of the Third Republic which was organized during the years from 1870 to 1876. The necessity of such safety measures readily becomes apparent when we recall the sudden deaths of the First and Second Republics which grew out of the Revolutions of 1789 and 1848. The system of civic-moral teaching is an outgrowth of the whole republican revolutionary history of France and of the easy defeat of the first two republics by monarchical plotters. To make this point clear, we shall review briefly the history of the Revolutions of 1789 and 1848 and then concentrate special attention on the battle of 1870-1907 between the Republicans, on the one hand, and their opponents, the Monarchists and Clericals, on the other.

*Bloody sacrifices of democratic Revolution of 1789 succeeded by Napoleonic monarchy.*—In 1789, following generations of terrific monarchical and ecclesiastical abuses, paralleled for a time by democratic propaganda led by Montesquieu and Rousseau, the great French Revolution began. It ran its course of meetings, oratory, constitutions, reforms, and terrors. For a short time it experimented with a constitutional monarchy. In 1792 the First Republic was proclaimed, but in 1793, in the midst of civil, religious, and foreign wars, a tyrannical dictatorship was instituted which "ground to powder the fragile liberties" of the people that the Revolution had evolved. During the long reigns of terror which followed, the guillotine claimed nearly all the leaders of France who might have saved the Republic, thus leaving it an easy matter for the fallow-faced, young artillery officer, the Italian born genius, Napoleon Bonaparte, to gain military leadership and displace the Republic—as real ruler in 1799 and as ordained emperor in 1804.

*Second Republic (1848) overthrown by Second Napoleon in three years.*—Monarchical control lasted from the First Napoleon's assumption of power to the Revolution of 1848 which proclaimed the Second Republic of France. However, through universal suffrage, the untrained voters of France elected, owing to the glory of his name, Louis Napoleon to be the first president of the Second Republic. Three years later (1851) by a coup-d'état, he imprisoned most of the civil and military leaders of France, and soon made himself Emperor of the French. The Second Republic was dead.

*Third Republic (1870) proclaimed by democratic Paris, but dominated for five years by Monarchists.*—The Third Republic of France, the Republic of today, was born in the midst of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 after the Emperor Napoleon had been captured at Sedan. It was proclaimed in Paris by a crowd led by Gambetta, Jules Favre, and Jules Ferry, on September 4, 1870. Yet when a National Assembly to conclude peace with Germany was elected by universal suffrage in 1871, it contained a majority of *Monarchists*. Although it was convened merely to make peace, this assembly continued to exercise control until 1875 when it adopted a constitution for the Republic which, it calculated, would keep the balance of power in the hands of the *Monarchists*.

*Legislative victory of Republicans described by Hazen.*—The first elections under the new constitution were held in 1876. Since the results of these and subsequent elections brought into power the legislature which established civic-moral instruction in the primary schools, we shall quote at length from Hazen's brilliant and authoritative account of the final triumph of republican government in France as given in his *Modern European History*. The following paragraphs begin with a description of the legislative elections of 1877, the second under the new constitution. The headlines of the quotations have been composed by the author of this article.

*Monarchists and Clericals defeated by Republicans, 1877-79; democratic legislation.*—The *Monarchists* carried on a vigorous campaign against the *Republicans*. They were powerfully supported by the clerical party. . . . The *Republicans* were, however, overwhelmingly victorious. . . . [They] sought by constructive legislation to consolidate the Republic. . . . [and] aimed to clinch the victory over the *Monarchists* and *Clericals* by making the institutions of France thoroughly republican and secular. The seat of government was transferred from Versailles [where the *Monarchists* had held it since 1871], to Paris (1880), and July 14, the day of the storming of the Bastille, symbol of the

triumph of the people over the monarchy, was declared the national holiday, and was celebrated for the first time in 1880 amid great enthusiasm. The right of citizens freely to hold public meetings as they might wish, and without any preliminary permission of the Government, was secured, as was also a practically unlimited freedom of the press (1881). Workingmen were permitted, for the first time, freely to form trade unions (1884).

*Public secular schools organized by the Republic.*—The Republicans were particularly solicitous about education. As universal suffrage was the basis of the state, it was considered fundamental that the voters should be intelligent. Education was regarded as the strongest bulwark of the Republic. Several laws were passed concerning all grades of education, but the most important were those concerning primary schools. A law of 1881 made primary education gratuitous; one of 1882 made it compulsory between the ages of six and thirteen, and later laws made it entirely secular. No religious instruction is given in these schools. All teachers are appointed from the laity. This system of popular education is one of the great creative achievements of the Republic, and one of the most fruitful.<sup>1</sup>

*Opposition of Monarchists and Clericals continued. Republic weathered a crisis (1889).*—This legislative triumph of the Republicans, however, did not kill the opposition from the Monarchists and Clericals who, for years, seized every opportunity to impede republican progress. For example, they supported vigorously the plans of General Boulanger, who seemed about to follow in the footsteps of the two Napoleons and, in 1889, to seize the Government. But the Republicans rallied, the Senate summoned Boulanger "to meet the charge of conspiring against the safety of the state." Instead, he fled from the country. "The Republic had weathered a serious crisis."

*Dreyfus case (1894) used in effort to discredit the Republic.*—In 1894, another notable conflict of the Monarchists and Clericals against the Republicans found origin in the famous case of Captain Dreyfus, who was unjustly condemned by an unfair court-martial for alleged treasonable acts of which he was later proved innocent. The national significance of the incident for our purposes is expressed by Hazen as follows:

The Dreyfus case, originally simply involving the fate of an alleged traitor, had soon acquired a far greater significance. . . . Those who hated the Jews used it to inflame people against that race, as Dreyfus was a Jew. The Clericals joined them. Monarchists seized the occasion to declare that the Republic was an egregious failure, breeding treason, and ought to be abolished. On the other hand there rallied to the defense of Dreyfus those who believed in his innocence,

<sup>1</sup>C. D. HAZEN, *Modern European History*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. 391-93.

those who denounced the hatred of a race as a relic of barbarism, those who believed that the military should be subordinate to the civil authority and should not regard itself as above the law. . . . those who believed that the whole episode was merely a hidden and dangerous attack upon the Republic, and all who believed that the clergy should keep out of politics.

*Consequently Monarchists ousted from army offices.*—The chief result of this memorable struggle in the domain of politics was to unite more closely Republicans of every shade in a common program, to make them resolve to reduce the political importance of the army and of the Church. The former was easily done, by removals of Monarchist officers. The attempt to solve the latter much more subtle and elusive problem led to the next great struggle in the recent history of France, the struggle with the Church.<sup>1</sup>

*Religious schools accused of being enemies of the state, (1900).*—In 1900, Waldeck-Rousseau, in a "speech which resounded throughout France," called attention to the rapid growth of unauthorized religious teaching organizations. Here, he pointed out, was

a power within the State which was a rival of the State and fundamentally hostile to the State. . . . The most serious feature was the activity of these orders in teaching and preaching, for that teaching was declared to be hostile to the Republic and to the principles of liberty and equality on which the Republicans of France have insisted ever since the French Revolution. In other words, these church schools were doing their best to make their pupils hostile to the Republic and to republican ideals. There was a danger to the state which Parliament must face. To preserve the Republic, defensive measures must be taken.<sup>2</sup>

*Legislative acts abolished religious schools (1904) and separated church and state (1905-7).*—[Consequently,] by a law of 1904, it was provided that all teaching by religious orders . . . should cease within ten years. The State was to have a monopoly of the education of the young, in the interest of the ideals of liberalism it represented. . . . This, as events were to prove, was only preliminary to a far greater religious struggle which ended [1905-7] in the complete separation of Church and State.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> HAZEN, *op. cit.*, pp. 399-400.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 400-401.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 401. *French secularization of schools parallels similar movements in Prussia, England, and America.*—It is instructive to compare the struggle for secular schools in France with similar struggles in England and America. In Western Europe, from the Middle Ages to the nineteenth century, religious agencies monopolized the control of many phases of education in all countries. The transition to secular control occurred earliest in Germany where the change is summarized by F. Paulsen (*German Education*, New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1908, p. 136) in these words: "Up to the sixteenth century, the elementary school was little more than an annex to the Church. At the end of the eighteenth century it was, in all German countries, no longer an ecclesiastical but a political institution. The State had assumed full control over the schools, although clergymen continued to be entrusted to a large extent with the exercise of that power in the name of the state." In England, on the other hand, the national government had practically no concern with elementary education until 1833 when it began to distribute funds to private and parochial schools which then provided all the elementary education afforded the country. Not until 1870 were local public boards with taxing powers authorized. All such secularizing movements were



## II. PARALLEL BATTLE OF REPUBLICAN SECULAR SCHOOLS (1881—)

*Secular schools and civic-moral teaching thus appear as central factors in a struggle for democracy.*—The political developments described and interpreted above by a competent historian give us the national setting in which to place the system of civic-moral instruction which was assigned "first place" in the scheme of secularized education organized by the Republicans in 1881-83. With these political developments in mind, we can easily understand the program of civic-moral training as one factor in a great national scheme of republican democratic development engineered by statesmen of wide vision and supreme skill.

*Clémenceau pictured peasant opposition to strategic republican teachers (1894).*—This broad, national, statesmanship view of the republican work of the school teachers of France may be further illustrated by a quotation from Clémenceau, the great war premier. Writing in 1894 in his daily paper, *La Justice*, he contrasted the power of the inexperienced school teacher with the power of the clergy and the local community in determining the civic-moral and scientific ideals of "fifty torn, dirty-faced" little peasant children. He said:

In futile efforts the pitiful ambassador of the Republic to the inhabitants of the rural districts consumes his time and strength. The parents are inaccessible to him; the country squires are his enemies. With the priest there is latent hostility; with the [church] schools there is open war. The latter have at their disposal greater resources than the teacher. They steal his pupils. They crush him in a hundred ways, sometimes with the connivance of the mayor, usually with the co-operation of the big influences in the commune. The government, which should defend him but which often abandons him, is very far away. The Church, which persecutes him, is very close at hand. . . . He is spied upon, hounded, denounced. One word too many and he is lost.

vigorously opposed by the Established Church and the House of Lords. Even as late as 1906 these agencies were credited by some observers with a legislative victory on an educational bill. In America the early colonial situation is well described by E. P. Cubberley in the following words in his *Public Education in the United States*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919, p. 171.

"The Church . . . was with us from the earliest colonial times in possession of the education of the young. Not only were the earliest schools controlled by the Church and dominated by the religious motive, but the right of the Church to dictate the teaching in the schools was clearly recognized by the State."

Cubberley then describes the gradual transition in America to our modern secular public schools through hard-fought battles with the clerical forces in Massachusetts, New York, and other states, particularly during the period from about 1825 to 1850.

An account of the developments in both Europe and America is to be found in S. C. Parker's *History of Modern Elementary Education*, Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912, Part III, entitled "Transition to Secular Basis for Elementary Education."

A few submit unresistingly; their life is peaceful. The life of the others is a constant martyrdom.

Thus far I have said nothing of the woman teacher, against whom the methods of the enemy are even more formidable. Often she has but one resource: to salve her own conscience in order to obtain the disdainful tolerance of the Church. Many do not fail in this; never did one see so many pious exercises in the school as since the school has been Godless.

Nevertheless the intellectual effort is at hand if only encouraged. There are most precious resources in this staff of ours, but we should not deliver it to feed the devouring lions.

Courage, O thou who turnest painfully the hard furrow! Thou sowest the first seed of a scanty crop, but thou makest the seed corn for the great harvest of the future. And when thou shalt be sleeping the good sleep of the earth, this effort, continuing to live, will produce its fruit for humanity.<sup>1</sup>

*Local opposition to republican teachings described by two village teachers* (1911).—The general picture presented by Clémenceau may be made more concrete by quoting extracts from two reports by rural teachers made during 1911–12. The first one shows a rural teacher's distress; the second one shows a rural teacher gaining a victory over the opposing forces.

*Distressful persecution of one teacher.*—The task is hard for us teachers in the Vendean country [wrote one teacher] where the priest and the squire are in league against us and our teaching. Think of being awakened with a start in the night by abusive noises made under your windows according to orders, of reading each morning on your door odious anonymous posters pasted there during your sleep. In the classroom itself, you encounter the ill-will of the children, their apathy, and their indolence. Are you obliged to scold for careless work, for a lesson half learned, for vulgar language? The child sneers and says half aloud, "I will go over to the good sisters."

*Community won to secular republican school by another teacher.*—The second teacher, who won out in spite of opposition, wrote as follows:

From the moment of my arrival at B———, I turned my attention to making myself popular with the children and to winning the hearts of the mothers. The population sought to make things hard for me. I was spied upon, and the children were questioned to see if I had not been guilty of intolerance. The curé organized the campaign. He gave orders to close the doors in my face when I made my first round of visits. He used every means to make life unbearable for me and to keep me shut up at home. But I was not long in gaining a real influence over this community, and ever since I have been guarding it as a treasure. Established as it is in the popular confidence, my school is, so to speak,

<sup>1</sup>F. BUISSON and F. E. FARRINGTON, *French Educational Ideals of Today*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. 126-27.

invulnerable. The violent attacks on the "schoolbooks" slipped by unnoticed. Not a single mother listened to the belligerent suggestions so freely made.<sup>1</sup>

*Examples of peasants celebrating funeral rites of the Republic (1886).*—Finally, to complete our picture of the social background for the civic-moral teaching in French schools we shall quote from the notes of M. Pécaut, head of a great state normal school at Fontenay for training teachers of primary teachers. M. Pécaut was one of the earliest and most successful organizers of the civic-moral teaching which was established by the national program of 1882. In the daily normal school assemblies, it was customary for him to give an informal talk on some civic-moral topic. In his notebook for 1886 we find this memorandum for the talk on a certain day:

November 23. *On the reflections our readings should inspire.* Read in the *Temps* the letters on the last elections. When you see that the peasants of the Ardèche, in their joy at the defeat of the republican candidates, sacrificed a goat to celebrate the funeral rites of the Republic, you will better understand the duties of our teachers.<sup>2</sup>

### III. PROGRAM OF 1882 FOR CIVIC-MORAL TEACHING

*Jules Ferry, great prime minister and colony promoter, explained to teachers the national purpose of civic-moral teaching (1883).*—With these impressions of the national need for republican civic-moral instruction and of the local opposition to such teaching by the Clericals and Monarchists, let us turn to an examination of the program of instruction as provided in the law of March 28, 1882. This may be introduced by a quotation from Jules Ferry, who, in the period of republican triumph following 1878, was twice prime minister (that is, chief statesman of France), also several times minister of Public Instruction and founder of the aggressive colonial policy of France, which, in a few years gave her a colonial empire eleven times larger than France itself. The school laws passed by Parliament under his leadership, and known as the "Ferry laws," laid the "foundation of the system of national education which has been gradually realized by the Third Republic." In a "letter to the primary teachers of France, November 17, 1883," Ferry makes the following reference to the purpose of the course in civic-moral teaching:

<sup>1</sup> BUISSON and FARRINGTON, *op. cit.*, pp. 199-200.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 51.

*Law of 1882 eliminates religious dogma but assigns civic-morality first place.*—The academic year just opened will be the second since the law of March 28, 1882, went into effect. At this time I cannot refrain from sending you personally a few brief words which you will probably not find inopportune, in view of the experience you have just had with the new régime. Of the diverse obligations it imposes upon you, assuredly the one nearest your heart, the one which brings you the heaviest increase of work and anxiety, is your mission to instruct your pupils in ethics and citizenship. You will be grateful to me, I am sure, for answering the questions which preoccupy you at present, by trying to determine the character and the purpose of this teaching. . . . The law of March 28 is characterized by two provisions which supplement each other and harmonize completely: on the one hand it excludes the teaching of any particular dogma; on the other, it gives first place among required subjects to moral and civic teaching. Religious instruction is the province of the family; moral instruction belongs to the school.

*Determination of legislature to found national education on duty and right.*—Our legislatures did not mean to pass an act that was purely negative. Doubtless their first object was to separate the school from the Church, to assure freedom of conscience to both teachers and pupils, in short, to distinguish between two domains too long confused: the domain of beliefs which are personal, free, and variable, and that of knowledge, which, by universal consent, is common and indispensable to all. But there is something else in the law of March 28. It states the determination of the people to found here at home a national education, and to found it on the idea of duty and of right, which the legislator does not hesitate to inscribe among the fundamental truths of which no one can be ignorant.<sup>1</sup>

*Long "moral apprenticeship" intended, not merely ethical theory.*—The letter continues with discussions of the possibilities of such instruction as providing a long "moral apprenticeship" for children and of the desirability of the instruction being personal, intimate, serious, with few formulas, few abstractions, many examples, particularly those from real life. With the letter was enclosed a copy of the programs for physical, intellectual, and moral education which the state had prepared. The following very brief selections from the elaborate program for civic-moral teaching will give a few hints of its character:

*Sample sections of the program. Ages 7 to 9.*—For the primary section, ages 7 to 9 years, the main headings are as follows:

Familiar talks. Readings with explanations (stories, examples, precepts, parables, and fables). Teaching through the emotions.

Practical exercises tending toward application of the moral training in the class itself:

<sup>1</sup> BUISSON and FARRINGTON, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-6.

1. By observation of individual character [specific treatment for good and bad qualities of the children] . . . . .
2. By intelligent application of school discipline as a means of education.
3. By constant appeal to the feelings and moral judgments of the child himself. (Frequently make the children judges of their own conduct. . . .)
4. By correcting vulgar notions (popular superstitions and prejudices, belief in witchcraft, in ghosts, in the influence of certain numbers, foolish fears, etc.).
5. By instruction drawn from facts observed by the children themselves [e.g., local cases of] drunkenness, laziness, disorder, cruelty, brutal appetite [on the one hand and of practical charity, courage, etc., on the other hand].

*Sample section for ages 9 to 11.*—For the intermediate section, ages 9 to 11 years, the following is a portion of the program:

Talks, reading and interpretation, practical exercises. The same type and means of teaching as before, save that instruction becomes somewhat more methodical and precise. Co-ordination of lessons and readings so as to omit no important point in the program below:

1. The child in the family.
  - a) Duties toward parents and grandparents: obedience, respect, love, gratitude. Help the parents in their work; relieve them in their illness; come to their aid in old age.
  - b) Duties of brothers and sisters: Love one another; protection of the younger children by the older; responsibility for setting a good example.
  - c) Duties toward servants: Treat them politely and with kindness.
  - d) Duties of the child at school: Regular attendance, obedience, industry, civility. Duties toward the teacher; duties toward comrades.
  - e) The fatherland. . . .

*Sample section for ages 11 to 13.*—From the program of the higher section, ages 11 to 13 years, we shall quote merely one topic:

III. The fatherland. What a man owes his country: obedience to law, military service, discipline, devotion, fidelity to the flag. Taxes (condemnation of fraud toward the State). The ballot: a moral obligation, which should be free, conscientious, disinterested, enlightened. Rights which correspond to these duties: personal freedom, liberty of conscience, freedom of contract and the right to work, right to organize. Guarantee of the security of life and property to all. National sovereignty. Explanation of the motto of the Republic: Liberty, Equality, Fraternity.<sup>1</sup>

*Descriptions of textbooks.*—The next article will contain a concrete description of several textbooks which illustrate the varied devices that French teachers may use to carry out this program.

[To be concluded]

<sup>1</sup> BUISSON and FARRINGTON *op. cit.*, pp. 27-33.

## SELLING A BUILDING CAMPAIGN

PAUL C. STETSON

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Muskegon, Michigan, is a city which has grown so rapidly in the last ten years that it is difficult to estimate its population. Conservative figures, however, place it at 40,000. This is borne out by the school census which is, in round numbers, 9,000. Muskegon, however, is a typical city and the problems, with slight variations, which one meets here are common to almost every city of its size in the same geographical location. It is primarily and distinctly of the industrial type.

In one way, however, education in Muskegon has been very unique. In 1895, Mr. Charles Hackley gave the Hackley Manual Training School and endowed it for \$600,000. Later he created the Julia E. Hackley Educational Fund which amounts to \$1,100,000. These gifts together with others he made to the public library and art gallery, which are under the control of the Board of Education, make the endowment amount to about \$2,000,000. When the estate is settled, it is expected that the total endowment will be about \$3,000,000. For this reason, it has been possible in the past to do many things in Muskegon, which were not at that time commonly accomplished by cities of this size, without taxing the citizens for their support.

The conditions produced by the war, however, and the consequent increase of the cost of conducting schools in respect to both maintenance and construction have taken up so much of the endowment fund that little is left to carry on the special outside activities. Seven years ago, for example, it was proposed by the Board of Education to erect a new high school costing in the neighborhood of \$300,000, to pay the interest on the bonds, and to create a sinking fund for the retirement of the bonds from the proceeds of the endowment. This meant that the high school would not cost the taxpayers of this city anything. The matter was submitted to the people and by a very small vote was carried. Later a new element appeared upon the Board of Education, a re-survey of the situation

was made, and it was decided to postpone building. Of course, by waiting, the Board of Education found itself face to face with the problem of being unable to build during the war period.

In the meanwhile, junior high schools had been rapidly developing in Michigan and other points of the middle west and the junior college, in some degree at least, had become popular.

Upon the signing of the armistice, the Board of Education undertook again the problem of building a new high school. Little headway was made and for several months the matter dragged. However, in September, 1919, the superintendent of schools prepared a careful study of conditions which bear upon the erection of school buildings in Muskegon, and presented data showing the rate of increase over a period of six years. The result of the consideration of this study was that the Board of Education definitely committed itself to build a new senior high school and junior college, a new junior high-school building and a new grade building, all of which will cost between \$800,000 and \$1,000,000. At this time it is impossible to give any more accurate data on the cost of the buildings because of the rapid increase in prices.

If there is anything significant in the adoption by the board and the public of this building program, it lies not so much in the amount, because other cities have done a great deal more, as it does in the fact that the proposition which was placed before the Board of Education and public received quick and favorable consideration as soon as it was presented in a definite business-like way. Every member of the Board of Education in this city is a successful business man. This is evidenced by the fact that all of them are directors in one or another of the local banks. When the president of the bank of which any member happens to be a director desires to expend a large sum of money, or when a corporation in this city desires to borrow money from that bank, approval is given only after the most careful consideration of the facts presented, and both the president of the bank and the borrower are very careful not only to prepare their statements accurately, but also to present them in a telling manner. In other words, it is a matter of salesmanship with them just as it is a matter of educational salesmanship with a superintendent every time he tries to get one of his ideas approved.

In this particular case there were two obstacles to be overcome which do not exist in the ordinary city. One is the tendency to

feel that endowment funds have provided for nearly all of the progress of the past and should continue to do so in the future. The second obstacle is that through indifference, or because through a long period of years the Board of Education has been composed of the best men of the community, the people as a whole have seldom voted at school board elections. In 1915, a new building was built at an expense of \$90,000 and the total vote was 111. In February, the same year, when the high-school project referred to above was submitted, 97 votes were cast, there being 86 in favor of the measure. A definite effort, however, was made to overcome both of these conditions.

The tables presented to the Board of Education were roughly of two types: educational and financial statistics. In all, there were ten tables prepared and a few charts. The general reader will not be particularly interested in a study of the actual tables, but merely in a statement of what the tables covered. The superintendent made a study of the school enrolment for the years 1914 to 1919 inclusive. The study when completed was placed in the hands of each member of the Board of Education. The first sheet indicated three imperative needs which arose from the study of the chart:

1. A new senior high school and junior college
2. A new junior high school
3. A new grade school

The second sheet gave in more detail suggested solutions of the problems which were raised in the study, and sheet 3 was a summary of the discussion. In other words, the board members were busy men and if they did not have time to read the report carefully, they could merely glance through it because the summary was arranged so as to be read easily.

Preceding the tables were given the definitions of the different technical terms which were used in interpreting the statistics submitted. For instance, such terms as "absolute enrolment," "net enrolment," "average number belonging," "median," "junior high school," "senior high school," "junior college," etc., were all defined because the average member of the Board of Education is not familiar with the technical use of all these terms. Care was also exercised not to introduce into the study any statistics of a highly technical nature.



The first table submitted was entitled "A Comparison of the Average Number Belonging with the School Census for the School Years 1914-19." This table was prepared to determine whether the average number belonging in the public schools was increasing as rapidly as the school census. It was found that the average number belonging increased exactly as rapidly as the school census which indicated that as the school census grew, that growth would be reflected in the public schools—an important conclusion as any school man can see.

Table II was entitled "The Relation of the Average Number Belonging to the School Census (1916-17) in Eight Michigan Cities Including Muskegon." The date 1916-17 was chosen because it was the last report of the state superintendent of public instruction. This table merely indicated that Muskegon was in the upper quartile as far as relationship between the average number belonging in the public schools and the school census was concerned, and that we were in better condition than many of the other cities of our size in the other. It simply re-enforced Table I and justified us in our conclusion that Muskegon is a city where the pupils attend the public schools. These two tables were prepared and discussed from the point of view of building for the future and the conclusion was reached that as the city grows the public schools are growing also.

Table III was entitled "A Comparison of the Senior High-School Enrolment Years 1914-19." This was important in that it indicated that there had been only a slight increase in the senior high-school enrolment and that there had been an actual decrease in the twelfth grade. This led to the study of the conditions which should bring such a peculiar situation about and seemed to argue for a different organization and for a different kind of equipment. The question then arose: If the Board of Education decides to build a senior high school, how large a building should it be and how many pupils would there be in it in five years? By using the device given by Professor Rugg for figuring rates of increase, namely the geometric mean, we found that the rate of increase over the six-year period had been 2.9 per cent and that in the five years to come, there would probably be in the senior high school alone, at this same rate of increase, 700 pupils.

Table IV was entitled "A Comparison of Junior High-School Enrolment, 1914-19." This study was made to determine the

number of pupils in the junior high-school grades in Muskegon, the increase over the six-year period, and the distribution of those pupils. As it was stated before, the point of view throughout was that of attempting to forecast future needs by a study of past growth. This study of the junior high-school enrolment showed us that we had enough junior high-school pupils for three large buildings and indicated the location in which they should be built.

Table IV indicated that the smallest increase in any one of the three years in the junior high-school period was in the seventh grade; so a study was made of the Record of Permits Issued by Attendance Department over a period of six years in an endeavor to determine whether the issuing of permits had any effect on the small increase in the seventh grade and whether the permits were increasing at such a rate as to make any material difference in our plans. It was found that the percentage of increase was so small that it would not affect any building plans which might be made.

A study was then made of Table VII, "A Comparison of School Districts." Each school in the city was discussed to determine where the largest growth was and what were the actual conditions over the six-year period in each school district. The result of this study was to convince the Board of Education that certain districts were in need of schools at once.

The question of the junior college was considered and presented in Table VIII, entitled "Muskegon High-School Graduates Attending Higher Institutions, 1914-19" in which we tried to answer the question, "Are there enough pupils for a junior college?" We decided that there were not, but that if the junior college were made a graduate school of which the college preparatory work would be only a department we would have 150 pupils available for enrolment by the time the building was completed.

Following the decision of the Board of Education to go before the people, it was necessary to prepare a study of the types of buildings, their capacity, and features which should be included. It is not necessary to go into details except to indicate that in the case of the new grade school a table was prepared which showed the number of pupils living in that district now, the rate of increase over four years, the number of pupils who could be transferred there, and showed that by September, 1920, there would be 300 pupils for the building and a year from that time there would be

approximately 350, and that in 1922 the enrolment would be slightly over 400. A statement was also presented showing the number of rooms necessary to take care of these pupils together with other desirable features and indicated that we should provide for a sixteen-room building.

The Board of Education had deliberated in a more or less perfunctory manner for about six months. When the study was presented to them, they decided as the result of two conferences to adopt the entire program without dotting an "i" or crossing a "t." The next problem was then to "sell" the matter to the people. A careful campaign was planned which included both editorial news and paid advertisements, and the usual number of talks before the people.

After careful consideration, one of the local business men's clubs was selected as the proper medium through which to launch the campaign and it was begun through that agency. In all of the speeches and interviews which followed, in fact in all of the publicity, use was continually made of the data which had been presented to the Board of Education. There was an attempt made to present the figures in as convincing a manner as possible, but there was no attempt to present anything but concrete facts.

Before presentation to the people a careful study was made of the financial aspect of the problem. This was presented as a rule by a member of the Board of Education while the educational feature was attended to by the superintendent and his assistants. On the financial side, a statement was prepared showing the endowment funds, their amount, how the demands had decreased the available endowment for other than original purposes, what other cities of the same size as Muskegon were doing without endowment funds, and endeavoring to bring home the fact that the endowment was given by Mr. Hackley primarily to provide for that type of education for young people which had not been available without the endowment. A statement was also prepared showing the assessed valuation, the outstanding bonds, the taxing power of the Board of Education which brought before the minds of the voters very clearly that Muskegon was in a very fortunate financial condition. Constant use was made of the results of a questionnaire sent to other cities, concerning their bonded indebtedness and the bonding issues which they had recently carried.

The actual number of people who registered for the election was small as compared with those who should have registered, but unfortunately for our plans the registration day was probably the worst day of November. As it was, approximately 900 people registered, which was nearly nine times as many people as had ever registered for a school-building program with the Board of Education of this city, more than twenty times as many as those who voted at the last school election.

Incidentally, in placing this matter before the people, the Board of Education felt that they were not only trying to convince them of the advisability of their building program, but that they were actually "selling" the Board of Education and its policies to the people, and that the contacts which they formed and that the interest which was created would have been worth while even if the campaign had failed. Facts convinced the Board of Education that a building program was necessary and facts presented in an intelligible manner to the people of Muskegon so convinced them of the necessity of the building program that they ratified the projects by a vote of more than fifteen to one.

## THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY IN READING

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Children in modern American public schools learn to read in half the time that their grandparents or parents required for the same degree of proficiency. Many parents do not believe this. Nevertheless, they are mistaken.

This rapid progress in reading is confined approximately to the first three or four years of the child's schooling. When this same child reaches the grammar- and high-school grades, instead of being a good reader for his age he has become a lamentably poor one. In both his oral and written English he is a sore trial to his teachers. His understanding of his texts is often superficial and inaccurate. His taste for reading matter is generally poor, if not unwholesome. And the study of English in its every phase is to him the biggest bore in the curriculum.

Furthermore, the early success of this child included far more than mere facility at reading. Did he not talk almost as correctly in the third grade as he does in the eighth? Although he wrote very simple English, yet did it not measurably approach in style and caliber the language he was able to read? Very few grownups have a corresponding mastery of English. He understood what he read in his texts. There was little difference between what he voluntarily read out of school and what he was required to read in school. Such a pedagogical triumph and satisfaction does not occur again in the whole period of his education. But the most important thing of all, he thoroughly enjoyed all phases of the work.

It inevitably follows from such a condition that there is something basically wrong with the methods of teaching English in the later grades. Whether the methods used in these two contrasted periods are substantially the same or substantially different, they cannot be equally well adapted to the pupils for they bring entirely different results.

Now the writer is only an ordinary obscure school teacher and not an expert in pedagogics. Let this confession be remembered as an extenuating circumstance for any and all dogmatic statements which may appear in this effusion. He has taught for twenty years, in all grades and in five different states. To his own have been added a thousand formal and informal laments of fellow teachers. He has read not a little of what educators and psychologists have written on the subject. He has looked at the problem from many angles and thought deeply for a solution. In the last few years an idea, how original and important he does not know, has been forced upon him. He thinks he has found the reason for this failure in English teaching.

It is the pupil's sorrowfully meager and inadequate vocabulary. He will never be a success in English until he knows more words—not to use them necessarily, but to know them. I know this sounds cold and unspiritual. I know this suggests a reversal of the progress we have made in putting a new spirit in the place of the letter of the old education. But read on, and we shall see.

Our mother tongue is wonderful and sublime, either to write or to understand. One's mastery of it is determined by the development of the finer senses and tastes. On the other hand, this mastery cannot proceed without the mastery of certain elements that lie very close to the ground.

From a few investigations I have made, I am thoroughly convinced that the vocabulary of the vast majority of grammar- and high-school pupils is about three grades behind what it should be for a proper understanding of what they are required to read.

It may seem absurd to argue that a few strange words scattered through a lesson of several pages could work such havoc. But every sentence obscured by an unknown word is passed over lightly by the pupil in the hope that he will catch the thread of thought in the next. Experience tells him that even several such hazy sentences will not prevent him from meeting his teacher's idea of a good recitation. Idioms, allusions, unusual constructions, and involved sentences are soon treated in the same manner.

A most pernicious mental habit is thus engendered. The pupil becomes content with a partial and hazy understanding of what he is reading. The unknown soon fails to pique his intellectual curiosity. A strange word is merely a "big word," one of the

inevitable nuisances continually met with in his reading. Vagueness of word and sentence he accepts as a matter of course. His reading soon becomes a matter of turning pages instead of following a line of thought.

But the most surprising and fatal thing is not that he doesn't know what he is reading but that he doesn't know that he doesn't know. He is the sorry victim of his own unconscious mental state. He has abused his mental acumen until it refuses to function. Half-meanings make the same impression of finality as should come only from whole meanings.

I do not believe that this condition is generally known and appreciated by teachers. To be acquainted with one's pupils, to hear them recite, to have a fairly accurate estimate of their intelligence, is not necessarily to know how poorly they grasp the thought of a page, much less to know the wrong mental processes responsible for the failure.

The "dictionary habit" is certain to occur to some as the only cure for a poor vocabulary. Frankly, to my way of thinking, the "dictionary habit" is one of the greatest fetishes in educational practice of the day.

A little examination of this habit will make its absurdity apparent. There are in the daily lessons of the average pupil from five to twenty words of which he has but little or no conception. No matter how rigidly his teacher holds him to the habit, these new words never get any more than the once-over attention. Only the pupil with a phenomenal memory will thus retain them beyond the immediate recitation.

Furthermore, this habit involves a prodigious waste of time. In the course of a year he is bound to consult the dictionary many times for the same word. Also, the definitions in the average school dictionary are as difficult for the pupil to grasp as the words they define. This sets the pupil on a wild-goose chase for the definition of a definition, twice and thrice removed. After the loss of much time in thumbing leaves he not infrequently fetches up with the identical word he sought in the first place.

No pupil will ever acquire the habit of depending upon such an inefficient practice. Unless the pupil obtains the information sought without further ado, consulting the dictionary will never be more than a school task required by the teacher. Definitions

should be so simple that the pupil cannot fail to understand. The editors of these same dictionaries may be good lexicographers but they are poor educators. One such editor makes almost a humorous exposé of his ignorance of the real requirements by alleging, in support of the simplicity of his dictionary, that every word that occurs in a definition can always be found in the vocabulary of the dictionary!

If a meager vocabulary and the lack of efficient methods for increasing it be the cause of this English failure, why did the pupil make such progress in the first four years when no attention was given to his vocabulary? The reason is evident. He already possessed no mean vocabulary. He had but to learn their written symbols. The child's reading in those first years was a mere matter of catching up with his oral command of the language.

Progress beyond this stage is conditioned by his learning really new elements. He must not only acquire new words for old ideas but also acquire new words for entirely new ideas. Yet our educational system makes not the slightest recognition of the fact that such a mental task is double and treble that of the first years. It leads the pupil into the unknown reaches of the language as if it were still but a mere matter of recognizing the graphic symbol of a known word. And given a knowledge of phonics, that is hardly a task at all.

If every child was reared in an atmosphere of high culture and education, this feature of the problem might almost disappear. One must remember also that though the majority of American homes represent a fair degree of education, yet the oral language of those homes is very close to the ground. The English of books and literature is almost a different tongue and, outside of school, there are few opportunities of coming in contact with it.

One might think that after several decades of free public schools the language of the people would be greatly improved. But the American schools are the melting pot of the whole world. Peoples of inferior education have immigrated here to such an extent, and compulsory education laws have been so generally enforced, that it is very probable that the command of language, possessed by the average school children of today, owing to home influences, is lower than that of the school children of a few decades ago. But whether this be so or not, our system certainly does not recognize the facts



that would tend to make it so. Even the contrary is assumed. Witness the manner in which literary classics have been pushed downward in the courses of study. Shakespeare was once read but little below the colleges. He is now read even in the grades, as reading goes.

Must we then set our grammar- and high-school pupils to conning and cramming five to twenty words daily into their vocabulary? I believe thoroughly in the modern spirit of education and would have none of the letter that kills.

But the spirit does not always give life; neither does the letter always kill. One example will suffice. Every teacher knows that a modern child learns to read sooner than his grandmother because of the phonic method. But by itself considered could there be anything more of the letter than keeping a child for weeks upon the task of learning the forty odd sounds which the letters represent? These sounds are absolutely meaningless when isolated. Yet it is certain that this is the more efficient way of attacking a language. And the crowning glory of primary teaching is the countless pedagogical devices by which the child acquires this lifeless and dissected knowledge and still has a far more absorbing time of it than his grandmother who was thrown almost immediately into the full tide of the spirit of literature.

In this successful primary teaching there are several facts that can have an important bearing on determining what methods should prevail for the later years. If pedagogy can build upon such elemental things as the sounds of letters, its wonderful drill methods of teaching them, surely the meaning of words contain equal possibilities. Furthermore, rapid progress is made because this elemental knowledge and principles are first thoroughly fixed in the mind of the child. For it must be insisted that it is not a case of giving him something different from what was given his grandmother. The phonic method is not an innovation. Neither grandmother nor anyone else ever learned to read English without it. Grandmother progressed slowly until she had unconsciously mastered the phonics, until the mere "spelling out" of a word would give a clue to its pronunciation. But the modern method is more efficient because it does not leave the acquisition of this phonic knowledge to chance.

And yet, again, much drill is necessary, for the knowledge of the sounds of letters must depend upon sheer memory. There is no logical connection between the sound of "t" and its shape except some fanciful idea the teacher may invent to assist the memory of the child. Neither is there any logical connection between "turgid" or any other word and its meaning. Both are purely arbitrary relations and must be memorized. And any method which leaves the acquisition of words and their meaning to a kind of soaking-in process is as wasteful and cumbersome as the method by which grandmother was taught to read.

Of course there is no necessity of imposing on the pupil the Herculean task of learning five to twenty new words a day. He meets that many new words daily because the proper attention has not been given to the growth of his vocabulary. From the few investigations I have made I believe that if the pupil, from his fourth year on, had acquired even one basic word a day, he would enter the high school with a vocabulary that is not equalled by even the exceptional high-school graduate of the present. Disregarding those words which come to him outside of school, I do not believe that he acquires under present methods even one basic word a week.

It might be urged against the idea of word-drill that the pupil learns by doing, that he learns to read by reading. But a moment's thought will convince one that no amount of word-drill could deprive the pupil of the opportunity for such a highly essential psychological process. Furthermore, it is never good pedagogy to leave the acquisition of elements and fundamentals to chance and gradual absorption.

And the acquisition of an oral vocabulary without drill on words is not a parallel case. Reading is not the same as life. In oral contact with a language there are countless concrete checks and guides to assist the understanding which are entirely absent from the printed page.

I know it is possible for a grown man or woman to acquire an extensive knowledge of English by merely the proper kind of reading. Given a rudimentary knowledge one can thus acquire a foreign language. But the mature mind has a broader mental experience. It is much easier for such a mind to deduce the true meaning of a word from the context. But to the young mind,

with its limited range and experience, it is largely a pure guess. Often he has very few possible ideas from which he can even guess. Some of the new words are likely to represent ideas entirely unknown to his experience.

It seems to me that the only logical solution of the problem is the adoption of a prescribed vocabulary graduated to all grammar- and high-school grades. Each successive grade should contain new words corresponding to the pupil's mental development, and they should not exceed in number what he can thoroughly master and retain. Texts for any given grade should conform in language to the vocabulary of that grade. Definite provision should be made in all grammar- and high-school grades for the mastery of this vocabulary. As for the time required, it could be done in half the time that is now wasted on the "dictionary habit."

Such a plan could hardly be called an innovation in educational practice. A similar change was made a few years ago in the teaching of numbers. Number knowledge and number combinations and tables are now given to the pupil in such easy stages that they are mastered once and for all time.

I am not advocating any childish games to be used by pupils in acquiring a vocabulary. But surely there is a sufficient wealth of material in words—their various meanings, forms and uses, their etymologies, synonyms, antonyms, and distinctions—to make an appealing study to both grammar- and high-school pupils. It should be given in connection with spelling and would make a justifiable use of much of the time now wasted in spelling words never used or in parroting the unintelligible definitions of the dictionary.

Teachers who know how pupils "hate" English, especially dry word-study, will not see much of promise in this. But why does the pupil "hate" English?

He hates it because it is always in the way. He is forever compelled to study and wrestle with somebody's highbrow English. The wonderland of science, the great stories of history, and the appealing things of literature are obscured by a language poorly understood. Much of his attention is diverted to understanding the language and some of his time wasted in thumbing for notes. He gets very little respite from this sort of thing. The wonder is not that he hates English but that he doesn't hate every study that he approaches through the printed page.

I thoroughly believe that everything that a pupil is required to read should be so written as to require the least possible effort to be understood. Is not that the accepted standard among those who write for mature men and women? Why should the young mind be the innocent victim in the violation of all the laws in the economy of attention? Difficult language is not necessary to his mental growth. He grows by understanding, not by misunderstanding. If his reading matter is properly graduated to correspond to his mental growth, his mind will have abundant opportunity for healthful exercise.

The pupil's studies in literature need offer no obstacle to the system herein proposed. It would be almost impossible, it is true, to find the proper literary selections that conformed absolutely to the vocabulary of a given grade. But a very acceptable approximation could be made. It has often occurred to me that the makers of literary courses of study pay not the slightest attention to the vocabulary of the selection. The appropriateness of the theme for a given age seems to be the only determining factor.

But it was pointed out that very poor results are obtained in oral and written English. But whether much or little grammar is crammed into the heads of the pupils, the writing and speaking of correct English is largely a matter of imitation. It is difficult, however, for a pupil to imitate what he does not understand. If pupils thoroughly enjoyed and entered fully into the spirit of what they read the imitative impulse would be much more alert. Much of poor oral and written expression is due to a failure to think clearly. But circumstances have not permitted them to think clearly in following the thought of a printed page and it is only natural for them to carry this fault into what they write.

Now there is no denying the fact that the popular taste for reading matter among grownups as well as pupils is much below what is in school and college courses of study. Poor understanding, rather than poor taste, is the real reason. The writers of this cheaper literature take the measure of the popular understanding and write accordingly. If thought- and ideal-content alone determined what was read the popular taste would be quite as good as that of the highbrows. If Harold Bell Wright had the style of Henry James the sale of his books would, I fancy, be reduced to quite harmless proportions. And on the other hand, such a style

would also deprive Jack London of his deserved popularity. Pupils and the people read what they can understand.

I hold no brief for the classics. Much of the time given to them could be more profitably spent on modern literature. But at any rate it is useless to attempt to create an abiding taste for a literature that is not thoroughly and easily understood. The schools, however, notoriously fail to put over not only the classics but also much good modern literature as well. It is useless merely to bring these lofty literatures down and put them in the hands of the masses. What is needed is to elevate the understanding of the masses up to that kind of mental food. All literature, modern or classic, was written to be read and enjoyed rather than studied and then ignored. When our schools and colleges turn out graduates whose knowledge of the English language is equal in range to that of English literature, then no literary selections, modern or classic, will suffer any great and undue neglect.

The success of the changes I have suggested would require a thorough and efficient application of the principle. As intimated, the work of acquiring a vocabulary would be done in the spelling lesson. Every spelling lesson would of necessity be a page of exercises on a few words instead of a mere list of words. Any live educator ought to be able to make such exercises highly varied, attractive, and conducive to thought and the acquisition of a vocabulary. The common practice of calling for the use of a word in a sentence would need to be given a new birth. I would call them facts and require the use of the word in the statement of a generally known fact. The vast majority of sentences which the average teacher accepts are simply imaginative generalities which may or may not be based on an accurate conception of the word. But if these exercises required one word to be used in stating a geographical fact, another in stating a historical fact, the pupil would do some real thinking. The use of two given words in the same sentence could be required, or the use of all words in an imagined incident. I think anyone can see that there is no end to the variety of exercises that could be arranged. But they should not be left to the teacher but should be definitely stated in the spelling book for the pupil to work on in the preparation of his lesson.

A spelling book thus compiled would solve the problem of the number of words it should contain. The old spellers contained as many as ten thousand. Newer spellers, based on alleged investigations as to the number of words actually used by the average person, contain as few as three thousand. Neither one of these standards for compiling a speller is correct. The first gives the pupil an impossible task. The second ignores the fact that there are many good virile and expressive words which would make his language more effective. He doesn't use them because he doesn't properly know them. A speller should contain just as many words of good current usage as the average class can thoroughly master. And mastery should include both spelling and meaning. Constant drill should permanently fix these words in the pupil's vocabulary.

I have said that texts should be written to conform to an adopted vocabulary, but I am not so sure that many of them would have to be rewritten. I know that pupils do not properly understand the majority of texts, but I believe they ought to and I believe they would if the proper attention were given to the acquisition of a vocabulary.

I might add in conclusion that since writing the above criticism of school dictionaries I have examined and used *The Winston Simplified Dictionary*, published by John C. Winston, of Philadelphia. The editors, W. D. Lewis and E. A. Singer, deserve the hearty thanks of the entire teaching profession. They seem to understand what a dictionary should be and have given us the only dictionary I know of that can properly be called a school dictionary.

## Educational Writings

### I. REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Social studies.*—It has been evident for some time that the schools will demand a new type of material dealing with present-day social situations. The awakening of a national consciousness through the war and the grave economic problems which have followed the war have created an interest in social conditions which never existed before, and they have impressed the teachers and boards of education with the necessity of modifying the course of study in all grades of schools so as to give children more material that will prepare them directly for citizenship. The preparation of material to satisfy this demand has required a little time. It may be expected that from this period on a great many experiments will be tried by various publishers and authors. The books which have already come are therefore to be looked upon as the forerunners of a long series dealing with similar topics.

Two of the new books deal with an aspect of social life which has been almost entirely absent from consideration in American schools, namely, the peculiarities of various nationalities. Miss Tuell has prepared a very useful outline<sup>1</sup> of a series of references, beginning with a study of the European nations followed in the last chapters of the book by notes on oriental nations and the nations of the Philippine Islands. This book does not attempt to deal directly with the peculiarities of Americans and with the special institutions of this country, but it lays the background for such a study of our own nation by giving an account of the other nations. In the preface and in the introduction the book stimulates inquiry by the problem method into the characteristics of American life.

Books of this sort are undoubtedly useful to teachers who have access to well-equipped libraries and are themselves trained to get the materials out of these libraries, but the movement which Miss Tuell represents will hardly be successful until someone has prepared in detail and in a form that can be presented to children the materials that she has gone over in outline. The book is in this sense a first step in the direction of actual school use of this sort of material.

The second book<sup>2</sup> dealing with a like problem is prepared for the use of Americanization classes and for the use of schools where collateral material on American national life will be acceptable. It is written from a more mature point of view than the book of Miss Tuell, and it is doubtful whether the whole of it can be successfully employed even in the upper grades of the elementary school.

<sup>1</sup> HARRIET E. TUELL, *The Study of Nations*. *Riverside Educational Monographs*, edited by Henry Suzzallo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+189. \$0.80.

<sup>2</sup> EMORY S. BOGARDUS, *Essentials of Americanization*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1919. Pp. 303.

Mr. Bogardus lived for a time in a university settlement in the city of Chicago. Here he came in contact with all sorts of nationalities under conditions that tended to impress on his mind the peculiarities of American life and the reasons why European nations emigrated in such numbers to this country.

The book opens with chapters on American traits such as liberty and self-reliance, union and co-operation, democracy and the square deal. In these chapters Mr. Bogardus attempts to show how the new social conditions of the Western World stimulate a type of thinking and a type of living which would be impossible in the older countries of Europe. He follows these introductory chapters by a discussion of racial history, taking the Indian, the negro, and the mountaineer of the Appalachian region as striking cases for description. In Part Three of the book is an account of the reinforcement of the American nation through immigration.

The spirit of the two books thus reviewed indicates very clearly the enthusiasm which has spread over the whole world for a recognition of national traits and a conservation of national independence. The impressive fact in both of these books is that the United States can never arrive at a full appreciation of the meaning even of its own national life without a study of other nations. Americanization as contemplated by these authors is not, therefore, a narrow and provincial subject; it is as comprehensive as the human race.

The novel experiments represented in the two books just reviewed will perhaps attract more attention than experiments in reworking material that has often been suggested as useful in the schools, but it is quite as important that we have a series of books that shall reformulate economic and social material as that new experiments in the study of nations be devised.

Professor Carlton has written a simple introduction to economics<sup>1</sup> which will undoubtedly be widely used in the schools that are interested in introducing children to the problems of industry. The book opens with a discussion of the fact that everyone must make a living. The different ways in which men make their livings by the simpler and more complex forms of industrial life are then described in detail. The farmer's efforts to make a living are described in such a way as to compare them with the efforts of the worker in a factory. Some historical material is introduced to show how the present situation has grown up. Following this introductory treatment of the efforts of different classes of people come chapters dealing with the broader organized efforts of society to solve the problems of transportation and business organization. Toward the end of the book are chapters on finance and banking and other forms of organized economic society.

The style of the book is simple enough to justify its introduction into the upper years of the elementary school. The material is of so vital a type that it deserves recognition in all schools. Where the special problem is that of preparing children for trades this book will serve to give a broader view of the individual's place in industry and will undoubtedly supplement the trade spirit of the special school. Where, on the other hand, social problems are being taken up in the light of history and the other academic subjects, this book will create a more vivid realization of the problems of life immediately surrounding the school.

<sup>1</sup> FRANK TRACY CARLTON, *Elementary Economics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. viii + 212.



There can be no doubt that we shall have more efforts of the sort represented by this book of Professor Carlton, and these efforts ought to be welcomed by elementary teachers, many of whom are quite as much in need of information about the organization of society as are the pupils in their classes.

A fourth book which deals with social problems of a familiar type was prepared and privately published by the superintendent of schools of Frontenac, Kansas. This book<sup>1</sup> is a description of a single community. It describes in detail the facts of community life well known to the superintendent and passes from this discussion to the broader problems of economic and social life. There is a good deal of the author's personal bias brought out, especially in the later chapters where he deals with educational problems. He evidently regards the distinction commonly made in college between Freshmen and Seniors as a thoroughly pernicious and undemocratic form of life. He spends a good deal of time detailing the sorrows of the Freshman who is roughly handled by upper classmen and points out that all this is intolerable under his definition of democracy. One has some difficulty in sympathizing with the author's extended comment along these lines. The fact is that democracy does not require that everybody shall be treated as equal from the beginning of life. The view of the present reviewer is that there are a great many Freshmen who are not yet prepared to be admitted to a democracy. They ought to be brought up by their elders in such a way that they will be able later to function in society with due regard to its responsibilities and privileges. Mr. Minckley's book is likely to send a group of high-school Seniors to college with a somewhat exaggerated notion of their personal rights.

The whole situation here commented on at length shows clearly the difficulty of teaching social studies in the schools without introducing some of the purely individualistic notions which are seriously going to embarrass these subjects as they come into the schools. There will be a very marked tendency, not only in such matters as have been considered in connection with this book but also in the broader treatment of labor problems and problems of social finance, to try out all sorts of schemes that are dear to the hearts of individual authors. The schools will have to go through this type of experimentation and the greatest caution ought to be exercised by makers of books and by users of books to see to it that the movement for social studies in the school is not jeopardized by a type of dogma that is as dangerous to this movement as it has been to the development of a broader spirit of religious tolerance.

A fifth book,<sup>2</sup> prepared by Messrs. Blaisdell and Ball, is familiar enough in its type but shows a growing interest in the personalities that help to develop our country. As supplementary reading for history classes or as general reading in the English course this book furnishes many stimulating illustrations of the struggles through which American civilization passed in its early years.

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*University co-operation in educational research.*—State universities have found it very advantageous in the development of their departments of education

<sup>1</sup> LOREN STILES MINCKLEY, *Americanization Through Education*. Frontenac, Kansas: L. S. Minckley, superintendent of schools, 1917. Pp. 304.

<sup>2</sup> ALBERT F. BLAISDELL and FRANCIS K. BALL, *Pioneers of America*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1919. Pp. vii+154. \$0.65.

to get into close co-operation with the schools of their states. The Indiana University has for some years past published the results of co-operative researches many of which have used the standard tests throughout the state of Indiana. The yearbooks are the outgrowth of conferences held at the university, and they have done much to stimulate the wider use of standard tests and to supply school men in Indiana with the standards by means of which they can compare the work in their own schools with the work of schools immediately surrounding.

There are other examples of co-operative research in particular fields. Several states, for example, employed such tests as the Curtis tests and published state standards.

We now have a relatively new form of university co-operation which promises to develop indefinitely beyond that which can be provided by an annual conference or a yearbook. The University of Illinois has organized on an elaborate scale a bureau which is staffed more generously than such bureaus have been in the past and is supplied with the funds for publication and correspondence to an unusual degree. The first annual report<sup>1</sup> of this bureau, published under the direction of Professor Buckingham, gives a comprehensive survey of a large number of problems that are appropriate for co-operative research. The report also contains a list of the standard tests with enough discussion of each of the tests to indicate to users their special characteristics and the methods of employing them. This list has the virtue of being a selected list. It is not a mere statement of all of the different tests which are available; certain tests are picked out which can be directly applied to very definite problems.

The first part of the discussion in which Mr. Buckingham canvasses the problems which may properly be taken up by such a bureau is especially valuable because there are a great many school people who do not know what is expected of them when they are invited to participate in scientific inquiries about school problems. Mr. Buckingham has done well, therefore, to state the problem and invite consideration of it.

We cannot at this point make any complete quotations from the book, but one or two extracts may serve to show the stimulating way this report has called attention to vital problems.

"There is also evidence that children do not profit by repeating the work of a grade. Professor H. L. Smith of Indiana University in his 'Survey of a City School System' gives figures to show that children spending a second year in a grade do not obtain higher marks than they did during the first year. Our own investigations show that although teachers confidently expect children to do better work when repeating a grade—and indeed keep them back in order that they may—the majority of them fail to do so. While, therefore, it is true that in addition to children of higher-grade ability there are also children of lower-grade ability in every class, this is not in itself a sufficient reason for holding them back or for demoting them. It may be a reason for placing them in some kind of a special class better suited to their needs than the regular class. But it seems likely that the intellectual loss due to a repetition and the moral loss due to a sense of failure are the only inevitable results of a policy of holding children back or of demoting them." [Page 13.]

<sup>1</sup>"First Annual Report Bureau of Educational Research," *University of Illinois Bulletin Vol. XVII, No. 9*. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1919. Pp. 78. \$0.25.

"It is easy to maintain that reading is the most important subject which a child learns while at school. It functions in all his study and it is the one product of instruction which he will surely use in adult life. The amount of reading which both the child and the adult are required to do is very great and is increasing. Of the making of many books there is no end, and the time required to read them bulks surprisingly large in the life of a civilized human being. The literary or professional man must labor unceasingly to keep abreast of the work in his field. Even a child has his 'assigned readings,' and in addition to these he may investigate a large assortment selected by himself.

"Probably, therefore, no service which the school could perform would be more gratefully received or more instantly approved than the training of children to read rapidly without sacrificing comprehension. It is a matter of common observation that people differ widely in the rate with which they can read, and it is almost as generally recognized that those who read rapidly do not do so at a sacrifice of their understanding of what they read. There are indications also that almost anyone may be taught to read more rapidly than he is now reading." [Pages 17 and 18.]

"Early last year, Superintendent H. Q. Hoskinson, of Pinkneyville, Illinois, wrote the bureau requesting information as to standards for memory work in the elementary school. He wished to know what poems were suitable material for memorizing and also how much memory work ought reasonably to be required in each grade.

"Upon investigation it appeared that there was no literature bearing on this subject. This is rather remarkable since it is quite common to require certain passages to be memorized by children and one would suppose that the selection of these passages and the determination of the amount of memory work which ought to be imposed would have engaged the attention of investigators.

"Convinced therefore of the value of more information bearing on the questions raised by Superintendent Hoskinson, we decided to examine the courses of study of elementary schools with a view to finding out what the practice is in selecting material to be memorized. All the printed courses of study, amounting to about two hundred, which the bureau had on hand were examined to find out what provision was made for this sort of work. Most of the courses of study were silent on the matter, but fifty of them were found to embody usable material. It is at once evident that most of the literary material prescribed or suggested to be memorized consisted of poetry. For the time being, therefore, the study was made without reference to prose selections." [Page 23.]

Another report<sup>1</sup> of a co-operative bureau is that published by the University of Oregon under the authorship of Professor Gregory. This contains elaborate tables of results collected from cities of various sizes in tests on arithmetic, reasoning, language and grammar, reading, handwriting, and spelling. The volume will be useful as a handbook for any school superintendent or principal in the state who wishes to classify his pupils through a comparison with neighboring schools.

<sup>1</sup> CHESTER ARTHUR GREGORY, "The Efficiency of Oregon School Children in the Tool Subjects as Shown by Standard Tests," *University of Oregon Publications*, Vol. I, No. 1. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon. Pp. 51.

*Nature study.*—The schools are apparently coming into a new era of nature study. The movement which began some twenty years ago and failed very largely because of the inability of teachers to handle this material successfully and because of the lack of suitable textbook material is gradually being renewed in a form which promises to be successful. The new type of material which is now being formulated is the result of a good deal of experimentation in the few centers where nature study has survived the shock of its first failure. This new body of material is in part the result of a growth in the higher school of an elementary general course which for some years past has been tried out in the ninth grade and is now being vigorously advocated as a proper part of the program of the junior high school of the seventh and eighth grades.

Professor Hessler has written another general science textbook<sup>1</sup> which is explicitly announced as designed for use in the upper grades of the elementary school or the first year of the high school. It does not differ greatly from some of the general science texts now widely in use. It begins with a discussion of the atmosphere and follows this with a discussion of water, mechanical and chemical forces, and other natural phenomena closely related to the subjects treated in the ordinary course in geography.

Somewhat different and more highly specialized in character are the books of the Cambridge Nature Study Series, the latest of which deals with a study of the weather.<sup>2</sup> This book, as indicated by its title, deals with one aspect of nature study and can be introduced into the course at whatever point the teacher finds most advantageous. The book is full of very interesting illustrations of different weather conditions and contains in relatively simple form a description of the scientific methods which are employed in the preparation of weather maps and in the prognostication of weather conditions. It is a type of book which will undoubtedly be of very great interest to pupils and will stimulate in them an attitude toward scientific method which will carry on into other fields. There is, however, a large body of concrete material related chiefly to England. The book ought to be imitated by an American edition which will give an account of the conditions on this continent similar to that which is given for the neighborhood of England.

A third book,<sup>3</sup> prepared in the form of a laboratory guide made up of loose-leaf sections, is one of the general series of nature-study books being worked out by Professor Downing. This volume begins with a study of the common rocks and minerals. This is followed by a study of the stars and solar system. Then come chapters dealing with flying machines, various forms of mechanical propulsion used in simpler weapons such as the sling and bow, balloons, and other mechanical toys. Optical instruments, musical instruments, the telephone, and general mechanical contrivances such as scales follow in subsequent chapters.

There can be no doubt at all that this sort of material will be very eagerly used by pupils in the elementary schools. There has been a general assumption

<sup>1</sup> JOHN C. HESSLER, *Junior Science*, Book One. Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1920. Pp. xii+243.

<sup>2</sup> E. H. CHAPMAN, *The Study of the Weather*. London, England: Cambridge University Press, 1919. Pp. xii+131.

<sup>3</sup> ELLIOT R. DOWNING, *A Field and Laboratory Guide in Physical Nature-Study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1920. Pp. 109.

in the field of elementary nature study that children are interested in plants and animals only and that mechanical toys or facts of physics are to be debarred because physics is an advanced subject which ought to be taken up only in the higher schools. Experience shows in contradiction of this assumption that pupils in the elementary schools are very much interested in all sorts of mechanical toys. The use of flying machines certainly ought to have suggested itself long ago to everyone who is interested in the introduction and development of nature study. Boys read about these mechanical devices with the greatest enthusiasm even when the school gives them no encouragement to do so. That physics is a proper subject of elementary instruction is clearly demonstrated by experience with boys and Mr. Downing has done well to take advantage of this general interest and to put the material in form so that it can be used by teachers in elementary schools.

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*Musical talent.*—The field in which psychological tests have been most successful in determining special talent is the field of music. Professor Seashore began experiments in his psychological laboratory a number of years ago to determine how far different individuals are able to distinguish pitches and how far they are able to produce with accuracy the different notes. He was led by his psychological experiments to devise a number of pieces of apparatus, notably one which makes it possible for a singer to see directly the degree to which he is accurate in striking a note which he is attempting to sound. With this visual control for the note that is being sung the observer is able to learn to produce notes more accurately than when the control is a purely auditory one.

The psychological experiments thus carried out in the laboratory led Professor Seashore to measure the ability of school children, and he devised a series of tests which brought out the fact that many school children are so far defective in their ability to discriminate notes that it is undesirable to spend any large amount of time or effort in trying to teach them music. On the other hand, there are a number of children who go undetected in the ordinary school but have a very high degree of natural ability that can be made the basis of a complete instruction in music.

Professor Seashore has now published in a single volume<sup>1</sup> the results of his different investigations and has supported these investigations by psychological discussions that include material other than that which he has accumulated in the course of his own tests. The various chapters of his new book deal with such matters as the recognition of intensity of sound, the recognition of pitch, time, and rhythm, and the ability to produce notes of pure quality. He has also given in substance the facts referred to in the first paragraphs of this review.

Perhaps the most interesting general chapter in the book is chapter xv in which are summarized the general principles of education to which Professor Seashore has been led in his examination of this special ability. This chapter is an emphatic protest against the uniform training of children in schools. It is a vigorous statement of the fact that there are very significant individual differ-

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<sup>1</sup> CARL EMIL SEASHORE, *The Psychology of Musical Talent*. Beverley Educational Series, edited by W. W. Charters. Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+288.

ences in pupils and that instruction in the school, if it is to be successful, must take into account these individual differences and must create a motive for strenuous effort on the part of the child by proper adaptation of the school work to the child's tastes and abilities.

For the special teacher of music this psychology is indispensable. For the general teacher there is much wholesome doctrine with regard to individual differences and the development of a course of study which will influence general practice. For the student of psychology the book is an excellent summary of the psychological material bearing on this special topic.

*Silent reading.*—A series of readers designed to emphasize methods of instruction in silent reading has been prepared by Miss Bolenius. With this set of readers there comes a teachers' manual.<sup>1</sup> About two-thirds of the manual is devoted to a detailed discussion of lesson plans to be used in connection with the selections in the readers. These lesson plans will be very useful to teachers in guiding the reading exercises which are given in the book. Each exercise is explained by giving some account of the author of the selection and following this by a statement of the way in which the lesson should be read. For example, the method of teaching Longfellow's poem "Rain in Summer" is described as follows:

"The teacher should try to bring out the pictures in the various stanzas. Note the adjectives applied to rain—*beautiful, welcome, incessant, showery*. In each stanza note the words that boldly paint the picture.

"Read slowly or fast to bring out the spirit of the rainfall. For instance, the second stanza pictures a fast downpour; the third, on the other hand, is slow, so that the sick man can drink in the cooling breath of the rain. The last three stanzas are more easily grasped if they are read rapidly, so that the thought-groups are given in their entirety. Incidentally these paragraphs furnish excellent practice in breath control.

"The pupils may listen with eyes closed, so as to concentrate upon building complete pictures—things seen, odors, sounds. Stimulating discussion may be aroused by urging the children to compare their pictures. Some little youngster may even be able to give you a picture for the last stanza—angels bearing the dead aloft to heaven.

"There are literal pictures in the first seven stanzas and fancies of the poet in the last three. Naturally, the poetic fancies are the more difficult. Be satisfied if the class as a whole get the literal pictures. If the last stanzas are well read, some of the mystery of the rain will sink in." [Page 157.]

In the introductory third of the book Miss Bolenius has discussed at length the general principles on which the readers are based. She has given a table, for example, showing how many words children ought to be able to read in a minute in the different grades and has suggested charts and other methods of bringing up the efficiency of the different classes. She has given a diagram showing how oral reading should be very rapidly diminished from the third grade on and its place

<sup>1</sup>EMMA MILLER BOLENIUS, *The Boys' and Girls' Readers: Teachers' Manual*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xlix+229. \$0.80.

should be taken by silent reading. Her six principles of difference between oral and silent reading are worth quoting.

"1. Silent reading is getting the thought, or the pictures, from the printed page; oral reading is giving the thought from the printed page. Oral reading is always preceded by an instantaneous exercise of silent reading, whereby the reader gets the thought.

"2. Silent reading is a simple process consisting of a number of eye sweeps across the page; oral reading, on the other hand, is a complex process, consisting of a combination of eye sweeps with their mental interpretation, and of vocal utterance in which the muscles of the throat are involved.

"3. These two types of reading regard words from radically different stand-points. In silent reading it is the meanings of words that count most, if the reader is to grasp the thought; in oral reading, it is the pronunciation of the words that counts most, it being perfectly possible for a child to read fluently and yet not to grasp the meanings of some of the words read and therefore not to have the full thought of the passage.

"4. It is generally conceded that a child can read about 28 lines a minute silently, and only 20 a minute orally. This difference is accounted for by the fact that the eye movements are not so limited in speed as are the vocal movements. One can read aloud only as fast as the tongue and lips can manage the words. On account of the fact that the rate of oral reading is more or less controlled by the vocal organs, oral reading is somewhat standardized.

"5. Children do not differ so widely, therefore, in their speed in oral reading; but there is a wide range possible in speed in silent reading.

"6. It is generally conceded that children usually get the thought better by reading silently. Any teacher of experience knows that frequently children are guilty of reading aloud 'mere words.'" [Pages xv and xvi.]

One can be critical of some of the details in this teachers' manual. For example, it is very doubtful whether children ought to be encouraged in connection with the reading of poetry to go through the performances that Miss Bolenius has suggested in the paragraphs quoted above where she describes what ought to be done with Longfellow's poem. There is very little reason to believe that reading is intended to cultivate a series of pictures in the mind, but one hesitates to be critical in a field where there is so much need of experimentation. Miss Bolenius brings to the task of teaching children in the grades an experience which is certainly in advance of that which most teachers have cultivated and it is so important that a large body of information should be collected about how children really do improve in reading in the middle grades that one is disposed to forego criticism in the interests of general experimentation on the part of teachers in the middle grades. If we can get teachers considering seriously the problem of silent reading, we shall improve teaching in our schools at a much more rapid rate than we shall if teachers are prevented from introducing this form of reading by any skepticism with regard to the true psychology of the situation.

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*Home economics.*—A new textbook<sup>1</sup> which gives in great detail the methods of canning all sorts of foods is offered for use in the cooking laboratories of depart-

<sup>1</sup> GRACE VIALLE GRAY, *Every Step in Canning*. Chicago: Forbes & Co., 1919. Pp. vii+253. \$1.25

ments of home economics. Fruit, vegetables, meat, and fish are discussed. There are also chapters on drying fruits and vegetables and smoking and preserving meats, and there are chapters discussing the reasons why various methods are successful and others less successful.

It is difficult to locate a book of this sort in the school curriculum. It can be used by advanced classes and by elementary classes. It is a general book on a practical subject and doubtless will be suggestive to teachers as well as to housewives who are concerned with the practical activities here outlined.

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*Survey of Memphis, Tennessee.*—Two bulletins of the Bureau of Education have appeared dealing with the survey of schools in the city of Memphis, Tennessee. The survey is announced as made up of seven parts. Other sections of the survey are to follow.

*Bulletin No. 72*<sup>1</sup> is an abstract of the report and is intended for the ordinary citizen of Memphis who is not likely to read the whole of the survey. The impression one gets from reading this outline and from the first part<sup>2</sup> is that there is very large need of reorganization in the schools of Memphis. That city is perhaps not typical of the school situation of the south, but it represents in many ways the kind of problems that arise in many southern cities. The school buildings are described as congested and inadequate. The course of study is conservative and needs to be enlarged by the introduction of more practical work. The application of tests and standards to the traditional subjects makes it clear that there ought to be a more vigorous effort to bring these subjects to a higher level of efficiency. The salaries of teachers are low, and in the main the city needs to be aroused to a more whole-hearted support of the school situation.

There is one feature of this survey which strikes the reader very impressively. No local officers of a city school system could bring out with the clearness that this survey does the necessity of a complete change in attitude on the part of the city. If our federal agencies of education can serve no purpose other than that which is exhibited in this survey, they will do the country a great deal of good by making a perfectly fearless statement of adverse conditions wherever these turn up. Those who are disposed to look upon surveys as undesirable because they are made by outsiders are completely answered by a survey of this sort. There is certainly no animus back of a report of this kind, but there is the steady urge of objective facts and these objective facts are brought out with a clearness and authority that attach to the findings of experts. There can be no doubt at all that the influence of the survey will be wholesome and fruitful of genuine reform.

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*Project teaching.*—Professor McMurry<sup>3</sup> has taken advantage of the enthusiasm for the term "project" in education to expound in a new way some of the

<sup>1</sup> "An Abstract of the Report on the Public School System of Memphis, Tennessee," *Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 72, 1919*. Washington: Department of the Interior. Pp. 43.

<sup>2</sup> "The Public School System of Memphis, Tennessee, Part I," *Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 50, 1919*. Washington: Department of the Interior. Pp. 160.

<sup>3</sup> CHARLES A. MCMURRY, *Teaching by Projects*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. vii+257. \$1.32.



fundamental principles of method which he has discussed in earlier books and exemplified in sample lessons which he has published from time to time. A project, as he puts it, belongs in some sense "to the language of business." It is an appeal to the child's practical experiences in life. Professor McMurry in elaborating this statement departs somewhat from the practice of other writers who use the word "project" to refer chiefly to handwork, for the appeal to business in Professor McMurry's mind includes a description of the great cities of the world. It includes a discussion of irrigation projects and other units of instruction such as have become familiar to readers of his books under other titles. In fact, as he goes on with his chapters one realizes that "type lessons" might have been used as a synonym in most of his paragraphs for the word "project." The book gives illustration after illustration of the sort which Professor McMurry has elsewhere described as type lessons or large units of instruction. There is a chapter in this book on instruction based on large units.

The book is an effort to break across the lines of the conventional school subjects. We are not to engage in the teaching of geography and history and reading as separate enterprises, but there is to be a unit of instruction which deals with some series of facts conceived in a large way but utilized for the purpose of giving the student mastery of the art of reading and at the same time a large body of instructive knowledge in the fields of geography and history. These units of instruction must not, however, be left to be taken up in sheer isolation. There must be a sequence and co-ordination between them.

One reads in these chapters much of the earlier Herbartian doctrine of correlation and concentration. In fact, as intimated in the first statement of this review, Professor McMurry's use of the word "project" is a rechristening of the doctrine familiar to those who have read his earlier works. There can be no doubt at all that to many teachers it is important that an educational doctrine should from time to time get a new name, and the emphasis laid in recent years on the term "project" is useful in taking teachers away from the routine of class instruction by the textbook method. The book now in hand illustrates perhaps more strikingly than any other recent publication the fact that the fundamental pedagogical doctrines that turn up from time to time under various names are the familiar doctrines which have been discussed before under other names.

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*A first reader.*—*Pennies and Plans*,<sup>1</sup> a reader of a new type, has much to commend it to teachers interested in better teaching material for the first grade. It presents about fifty original selections for reading—all of them attractive and interesting to the little child in terms of its own interests and activities in the after-war period. It is realistic material of today's doings in good literary form rather than material selected solely from the traditional point of view of "literature."

The sections deal with interesting things for children to do, such as games and the keeping of pets, and all of them stress the newer activities into which

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<sup>1</sup> ANNIE E. MOORE, *Pennies and Plans: A First Reader. Thrift Series*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919.

children have been introduced as a result of the war. As the Jack Spratt rhyme leads naturally to its lesson of food conservation, so there are throughout the book suggestions that will carry the boys and girls over into useful activities of one kind and another; yet all are connected with the land of play and games in which the child lives, and from which it is the purpose of education to lead him on into the land of adult citizenship.

Some of the topics included are the Junior Red Cross, Thrift Stamps, knitting, gardening, marketing, home cooking, helping mother, and welcoming home the soldiers and sailors. The matters which it considers are, on the whole, matters of permanent importance as there are carried over into our national life the abiding lessons of the war. As we move a little further from the war a revision of certain selections can be made to secure the necessary adjustment to a later point of view.

The book will be of great service in schools that are introducing thrift lessons and school savings as a permanent feature of school procedure, in accordance with the program of the National Savings Movement of the United States Treasury Department and the recommendation of the National Education Association.

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS

## II. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

### A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BOGARDUS, EMORY S. *Essentials of Americanization*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1919. Pp. 303.
- BRYCE, CATHERINE T. *The Light: An Educational Pageant*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1920.
- ✓ "First Annual Report Bureau of Educational Research," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. XVII, No. 9. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1919. Pp. 78. \$0.25.
- McMURRY, CHARLES A. *Teaching by Projects*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. vii+257. \$1.32.
- SEASHORE, CARL EMIL. *The Psychology of Musical Talent*. *Beverly Educational Series*, edited by W. W. Charters. Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+288.
- TUELL, HARRIET E. *The Study of Nations*. *Riverside Educational Monographs*, edited by Henry Suzzallo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+189. \$0.80.

### B. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BOLENIUS, EMMA MILLER. *The Boys' and Girls' Readers*. *Fourth Reader*, pp. ix+276, \$0.72; *Fifth Reader*, pp. vii+308, \$0.76; *Sixth Reader*, pp.

vii+340, \$0.80; *Teachers Manual*, pp. xlix+229, \$0.80. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919.

DOWNING, ELLIOT R. *A Field and Laboratory Guide in Physical Nature-Study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1920. Pp. 109.

HESSLER, JOHN C. *Junior Science*, Book One. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1920. Pp. xii+243.

HILL, RUTH. *John Joseph Pershing. Little Folks' Plays of American Heroes*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Pp. 76. \$0.75.

LUTHY, CHAS. T. *Scientific Handwriting*. Peoria, Illinois: Chas. T. Luthy, 1918. Pp. xiv+233.

MARMER, ARCHIE. *Makers of America. Little Folks' Plays of American Heroes*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Pp. 63. \$0.75.

MINCKLEY, LOREN STILES. *Americanization Through Education*. Frontenac, Kansas: L. S. Minckley, Superintendent of Schools, 1917. Pp. 304.

#### C. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BOYNTON, PERCY H. *A History of American Literature*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. v+513. \$2.25.

BRONSON, WALTER C. *A Short History of American Literature*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. Pp. ix+490.

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**A**N ATMOSPHERE of mystery usually pervades the final proceedings of a state textbook commission on the eve of adoption. After the decision is announced, the vanquished representatives sulk or congratulate the victor (according to their degree of sportsmanship), and the successful bookman feels profoundly thankful without being at all disposed to ask intrusive or unnecessary questions as to what were, after all, the exact features of the book that did "win out." The State of California, however, has rendered inquisitiveness unnecessary by publishing of its own accord the reasons for its recent choice of Beard and Bagley's **THE HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE** as the State text. The following signed statements appear in the December number of the official organ of the State Department of Education:

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